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Summary of the News

The outstanding feature of the military situation during the past week has been the extraordinary vigor of the Russian offensive, which from the Galician and Bukowinan fronts has extended all along the line to the Baltic. The Russian official statement of Friday of last week reported a tremendous bombardment of German trenches on the Riga front. Most significant, however, is the counter-stroke delivered by Gen. Brusiloff on the Stokhod, in the direction of the important railway junction of Kovel, which was the part of the line where the Russian offensive had proved least effective and where the initiative had passed for the moment to the Germans. The capture of Manevitchi, on the Kovel-Sarny railway, reported in the bulletin of Friday of last week, was followed, in Monday's bulletin, by the news of the capture of Gouvelitchi, an advance of some fourteen miles in two days. This operation, combined with the advance of Gen. Letchitzky's forces northwest of Kolomea, where they have possession of the railway at Delatyn, constitutes a serious threat against the army of von Bothmer, which has begun a retirement westward between the Stripa and Zlota Lipa Rivers. Further to the north a vigorous offensive is in progress against the railway junction of Baranovitchi, on the Minsk-Brest-Litovsk line.

In the west the Allied offensive is stated to have continued with results satisfactory to the high command. Positions gained in the initial attack have apparently been firmly consolidated, German counter-attacks having been almost everywhere repulsed, and the heavy artillery has been advanced. The most important gain of the week is probably the village of Hardecourt, at the junction of the British and French lines, which consolidates this presumably weak spot. On the French front important progress in the direction of Peronne was achieved by the occupation of Biaches, on the northern side of the Somme and almost in the outskirts of Peronne. The British have advanced to Ovillers and Montauban. The important defensive position of Contalmaison was stormed for the second time, and held, on Tuesday. In the first battle at this point the British were opposed by five battalions of the Prussian Guards, whose losses, which included 700 prisoners, are described as exceptionally severe. The total of German prisoners taken during the first week of the Franco-British drive is stated to exceed 15,000. Included in the war material captured are about 100 cannon.

On other fronts there is little of moment to report. The Italians, fighting in difficult country, have continued their steady progress in the Trentino. Dispatches from Petrograd of July 7 confirmed the Turkish statement of two days earlier that the Russians had evacuated Kermanshah and added that in face of large Turkish forces they had fallen back for a distance of eighty miles to the Persian hills, where they would remain during the hot weather. On the Verdun front there has been nothing of significance to report since the recapture of the Thiaumont works by the Germans on July 4.

Debate on the Revenue bill was concluded in Congress on Monday. The measure was finally passed by a vote of 240 to 140.

The skeptics were rebuked and considerable excitement aroused on the front pages of newspapers by the arrival in Chesapeake Bay on Sunday of the long-heralded German submarine Deutschland, which had accomplished the voyage from Kiel in sixteen days.

A protest has been lodged with the State Department by the Belgian Minister against the action of the German Government in forcing Belgians resident in Germany to enter the German army.

Dispatches from Washington of July 6 contained the information that the State Department had directed American Chargé Miller at Constantinople again to call to the attention of the Turkish Government the fact that no reply had been made to the request of the United States that neutrals might be permitted to feed the starving Christian population of Syria.

The perturbation of Mr. von Mach and his friends over the supply of milk for German babies should be stilled by the official report of the American Embassy in Berlin, made public by the State Department on Sunday, which characterizes as "without truth" statements that children in Germany are starving because of lack of milk and other nutritive foods. "The very opposite is true," the report adds, understandably in sense if not in strict sequence.

Tension over the situation in Mexico, already relieved by the release of the American prisoners, was further relaxed by the conciliatory tone of Gen. Carranza's note, received in Washington on July 4 and published in the papers of July 6. The cardinal feature of the note, apart from its noticeably friendly tone, was the suggestion for settlement of mutual difficulties either by arbitration or by direct negotiation. Secretary Lansing replied to the note on July 7 accepting the de-facto Government's offer of settlement by direct negotiation, and it appears probable that conferences will take place in some city of the United States.

It became known on Monday that Col. Roosevelt had made a formal offer to the Secretary of War of a division of volunteer troops to be assembled in case of war with Mexico. The offer, it was stated, contemplated the appointment of the Colonel to be a major-general commanding the division.

The substance of the new Russo-Japanese Alliance, which was signed at Petrograd on July 3, was made public in a brief statement by the Foreign Office at Tokio on July 7.

Dispatches from Berlin during the past week have taken note of the renewal of demands from many quarters for a relentless prosecution of submarine warfare. It is not thought, however, that the Chancellor will be compelled or induced to abandon the attitude expressed in the last note to America on the subject of the Sussex.

A new Order in Council, superseding all orders made under the Declaration of London since the beginning of the war, was issued on July 8. Enforcement of the principle of ultimate destination; presumption of hostile destination, which puts the burden of proof on the shipper; liability to capture "before the end of her next voyage" of a vessel which has successfully eluded the blockade, and condemnation of a vessel if contraband forms more than half her cargo are the salient points in the new order.

Admiral Jellicoe's detailed report of the naval battle in the North Sea was contained in dispatches from London of July 6. The British Admiral estimates the losses of the German fleet at twenty-one ships, including two Dreadnoughts, one battleship, and one battle cruiser. The engagement, on the basis of the report, is described as a decided British victory.

Mr. Asquith's Ministry has survived yet another threatened crisis. Details of Mr. Lloyd George's proposals for the tentative settlement of the Irish question, on which the Cabinet has agreed, were published in dispatches from London of July 6, and were announced in the House of Commons on Monday, when Mr. Asquith stated that the bill would be brought in next week. The plan contemplates the setting up of an Irish Parliament by the transference of seventy-eight members now sitting in the British House of Commons as representatives of the twenty-six Nationalist counties. Among these will be two Unionists, Sir Edward Carson and J. H. M. Campbell, who represent Dublin University. The seventy-eight will not forfeit their membership at Westminster. Six Ulster counties are excluded. More liberal provision is made for finance than was included in the original Home Rule bill. The arrangement will continue in force until one year after the conclusion of the war, when it will come under review by the great imperial conference which will be held to adjust the government of the Empire.

The appointments of Mr. Lloyd George to succeed the late Lord Kitchener as Secretary of State for War and of Lord Derby as Under-Secretary were announced on July 6. At the same time announcement was made that an earldom had been conferred on Sir Edward Grey. Other changes in the British Cabinet were made known on July 9. Edwin Samuel Montagu, Financial Secretary to the Treasury, succeeds Mr. Lloyd George as Minister of Munitions; Thomas McKinnon Wood, Secretary of State for Scotland, becomes Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster and Financial Secretary to the Treasury, and Harold J. Tennant, Under-Secretary for War, becomes Secretary of State for Scotland. Lord Curzon, it was announced, has been invited to become a permanent member of the War Committee.

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The Week

The conciliatory reply of Secretary Lansing to Carranza's note may hopefully be interpreted as bearing both on the immediate difficulties between the two republics and on the deeper causes which have led to them. The first paragraphs are emphatic upon the desirability of a prompt adjustment of the difficulties which have arisen along the international boundary. It is suggested by various commentators that this adjustment may be arrived at by informal conferences between Señor Arredondo and Mr. Polk; it is certain that it will be arrived at frankly and without undue formality. The attitude of Carranza in notifying the American authorities of threatened raids by Villistas is itself a partial pledge of his recognition of the function of American troops on the border, and acceptance of their place in the future scheme of things there. But Secretary Lansing goes on to speak of "remedies which may be applied to the existing conditions" which have long been productive of differences between the Governments, and of plans "to remove finally" these differences in a way which may be accepted as indicative of American eagerness to assist Mexico in the permanent solution of the economic and social problems confronting her, at least in so far as these problems have contributed to the unrest on the border and the dangers to foreigners in the interior. This is but the natural expression of the President's oft-repeated desire to do his utmost to help rehabilitate Mexico.

Secretary Baker has done the correct thing in releasing from the National Guard the men with families or relatives dependent upon them. To discharge all the married men is not intended, for there are many who are pecuniarily independent, and to allow them all to go might in some cases cut the regiments nearly in half. Of course, the lesson of it all is that hereafter men must not enter the National Guard who are not ready for any imaginable service, not only for the State, but for the Federal Government as well. They must be so situated that they can go overseas on a moment's notice if the President directs, and as their period of liability is for six years, they must be mobile during this time. This fact is likely to make a considerable change in the personnel of the Guard, and it brings up the question whether the Guard can be recruited to the strength required by the new Defence Act—35,000 men. Heretofore, the enlistments have never exceeded 17,000, and some of these were paper-strength reënlistments for the annual inspection, followed by immediate discharge.

The high cost of war to the United States is illustrated by the proposal, which failed of adoption in Congress, to grant $50 monthly to families of National Guardsmen absent on active service. No one argued that $50 would more than supply the bare necessities of an average American family. Yet this sum is about treble what any European Government started out with in the way of allowances at the war's beginning. England, in the fourth month of the war, voted about $17.75 per month to each dependent family, and France, by merely extending the scope of an old statute, gave approximately $16.50 for the same purpose. The German figures seem to be complicated by an overlapping system of industrial insurance and local pensions. The direct monthly contribution of the Imperial Government at the beginning was $7.50. But this must have been considerably augmented from other sources, and probably by the Government itself later on. Russia does not pay any fixed sum per month, but merely the current market value of certain quantities of food. At the highest possible figure, Russia's allowance to dependents of soldiers is smaller than that of France and much less than one-third that proposed for the families of Americans. In Canada, on the other hand, the sum allotted is as high as $20. And the Canadian soldier receives $18 more pay a month than the American. In other words the cost of this service to Canada, whose standard of living approaches that of the United States, approximates the American estimate of $50.

In the final form of the Government Shipping bill, as agreed upon by the Democratic caucus of the Senate on Saturday, its parents could not recognize their own offspring. Such large concessions had to be made to protesting Democratic Senators that only a fragment of the original measure is at present left. The amendments now adopted explicitly forbid the Government to purchase a ship flying the flag of a European belligerent. Nor can it buy any American ship actually engaged in sea-trade; nor a vessel of any nationality which is "below 75 per cent. of its original efficiency." All this is tantamount to providing that the Government shall not buy any ships at all. It may still order some built, but even these it must not operate unless every effort fails to induce private corporations to do so. Here, then, is the virtual abandonment of the first purpose of the Shipping bill. It was an "emergency" measure, but not a stroke of work, nor a shadow of benefit, can be got from it for many months to come, or until the emergency shall have passed. The whole result is an unhappy illustration of the President's way of clinging to a project of which he has once become enamoured.

In a campaign year there is double reason for watching crop reports, and though—thanks to our extraordinary activity in industry—the unfavorable forecast of June had no effect on exchanges, the Democrats may well take comfort in the significant improvement noted in the July statement. With weather of a normal sort, that improvement should be sustained. The winter and spring, with drought generally followed by excessive rains, had seemed to presage a poor harvest in all grains, but recovery of the ground lost has been steady. The total wheat yield promised has risen by almost 50,000,000 bushels, or to 759,000,000 bushels, which is, of course, much less than in the last two extraordinary years, but which is still as large as that of 1913. The promised yield of oats is 62,000,000 bushels more than a month ago, or a total of over 1,300,000,000 bushels—making it likely that we shall keep above the ten years' average. As for corn, the present outlook is for 2,866,000,000 bushels, which would still be a large crop. The United States may be many years in equalling the phenomenal harvest of 1915, and yet take pride in its agricultural output.

There are multiplying signs that the industrial world is beginning to believe in the coming of peace. From all over the globe our steel trade is receiving orders for ship plates for merchant vessels, while it is widely reported that no orders for war material are being given to run after January 1 next. This may be in part owing to the increased production of British and Russian factories; none the less, it is possible to deduce some belief in a lightening of Europe's horizon. So far as our own war-order companies are concerned, it was announced last week that the Du Pont powder mills had cut off one shift of men, and the Westinghouse Air Brake Company is dismantling some of the buildings it used for the making of munitions. In addition, there are known to be numerous cases where plans are already under way to convert mushroom

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war-order plants into factories for the production of tin-plate, dyestuffs, and other material needed in the peaceful arts. All of this, be it noted, has disturbed Wall Street not at all, so that those prophets who have looked for a violent convulsion at the close of the war may well take courage. Indeed, the peaceful character of the orders now pouring in to the steel trade gives every ground for the belief that the United States will be called upon to furnish a very large share of the material needed for the reconstruction of Europe.

The news from all the fronts cannot but give Berlin grave concern. It does not matter if the day by day gains are slight everywhere save in Galicia. The fact is that, with nearly every part of the "ring of steel" flaming in battle, the resources of the Empire in reserves of men and ammunition will be taxed to the utmost under a nerve strain which will be almost insupportable if long continued. In the east the admitted re-formation of Gen. von Bothmer's lines shows how successful the Russian advance is and how dangerously near that general's army is to being outflanked. As it is, there is a vulnerable salient being formed which will not only take large numbers of men to defend, but will endanger the whole German line from Riga down. A general withdrawal of the eastern front under pressure would create a most painful impression, particularly in view of the fact that the Austrian armies have again shown their inability to hold off the Russians. For the latter, nothing could be better than the steady English and French progress in the west. So long as that lasts, we shall hear nothing of lightning transfers of an army from west to east. That the British are paying a terrible price for such successes as they have achieved is all too apparent; it seems to substantiate the stories that the British and French hospitals have been prepared for the reception of a million men. One more thing is certain: Berlin's questions as to whether "Kitchener's hirelings" would fight has now been forever answered.

A treaty of alliance between Japan and Russia has long been in the making; its conclusion is a clear result of the European war. That hastened and strengthened the inclination of the two nations to seek common ground in the Far East. Japan has been arming Russia for European battles, and as a partial return has got an understanding about spheres of influence and mutual rights in the Orient. Such are the revenges which the whirligig of time brings round. The Anglo-Japanese alliance is still in existence; but its renewal, at the fixed term, will be made doubtful by the new treaty between Japan and Russia. For it was distinctly the idea of Japan as a counterweight to Russian ambitions in the Far East which led the British Government to take the daring step of a Japanese alliance. Now, Russia suddenly appears as Japan's ally. The spectacle must cause much searching of heart in England. It is certain, also to cast its shadow over China.

Dr. Edmund von Mach's pitiful stories of the sufferings of German babies for want of milk, palpably designed to arouse sentiment against the British blockade, become pitiful in a new sense in the light of the American Embassy's report on the subject. As approved by the German Foreign Office, this affirms that there is not the slightest evidence "of any reduction in the milk supply to nursing mothers and infants." Babies were never healthier, and the reduction in the death-rate of children is "unparalleled." During the coming summer it is even expected that the supply of milk will be sufficient to permit of a much larger use of it by adults. It is safe to predict that among the items in the cargo of the submarine Deutschland when it returns will not be cases of condensed milk. Vitiated as the effect of the appeals of von Mach and his friends was by the false sentiment in them, they could always be riddled by the use of a little common-sense calculation based on the number of cows in Germany before the war and the impossibility of the authorities having allowed enough to be killed to destroy that fraction of the normal supply necessary for babes in arms. The Embassy points out, in addition, that since early in 1915 the number of births in Germany has fallen off sharply, while the organizations for social service which make babies their special care have reached an unprecedented efficiency.

An Irish House of Commons with Sir Edward Carson sitting in it! This lying down of the lion and the lamb together is the best measure of the extraordinary effort, and the great political sacrifices, that have been made to effect a temporary settlement in Ireland. It is another triumph for Lloyd George, who now has apparently taken the position of universal handyman and rescuer in Great Britain. As the plan is outlined in the dispatches, a Nationalist government is at once to be set up in Dublin. Its constitution will be somewhat different from that provided in the Home Rule bill, and the initial grants of money from the Imperial Treasury will be larger than that measure contemplated. But the main thing is to make a beginning. The experiment in Irish self-government will now be watched with good will by both English parties, only a few ultra-Conservatives having held out against it to the last. It is agreed that the scheme shall remain in effect until one year after the war, when it is expected that a general Imperial Conference will pass upon the whole future relations of England to the Colonies and Dominions. It is needless to say that, with the eyes of the Empire, and indeed of the whole world, upon them, the members of the new Irish government will have redoubled motives for displaying moderation and sagacity and union.

Hard reading the *Congressional Record* is, for a steady diet, but one occasionally comes upon an interesting item in it which the Washington correspondents have not reported. For example, when the Senate took up the Agricultural bill, last week, an amendment was moved and adopted without opposition that is far from being a trifle, though it seems to have passed unconsidered by the public. It was to authorize an appropriation of an additional $3,000,000 for the purchase of lands to protect the watersheds of navigable streams. Thereby hangs a pleasing tale. It was in 1911 the Weeks act began the work of saving forests in the White Mountains and in the Appalachians from the despoiling lumberman and wood-pulp ravager. An unpaid Commission was appointed with the right to expend $1,000,000 the first year, and $2,000,000 a year for five subsequent years, in the rescue of such imperilled area. Now comes the wonder. Hundreds of thousands of acres have been bought by the Commission in Maine, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Tennessee, and other States; the whole administrative cost, including legal expenses, has been less than 50 cents an acre, and the Commission remains with $3,000,000 unexpended! It is simply a reappropriation of that sum, for this year and the next, which the amendment proposes; after that, Congress may go on with the task, or drop it, as it pleases. Such a record is almost unexampled in governmental work in this country. Senator Gallinger paid a warm tribute to the three Democratic members of the Cabinet—Messrs. Lane, Houston, and Garrison—who have served on the Commission, and his own zeal and efficiency were praised by other Sena-

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tors. The whole undertaking has been non-partisan and non-sectional, and has resulted in the preservation of many an endangered scenic beauty, North and South.

As the last Prohibition platform contained less than 300 words, it is a little disturbing to learn that this year's is being drafted by some 140 persons. Their labors will be co-ordinated at a conference before the Convention opens July 19 in St. Paul. The reason for this unusual industry is that the party hopes to step into Progressive shoes with a programme of "peace, progressive labor legislation, and prohibition." It is the portion upon labor legislation, especially the task of expanding the pithy declaration for "absolute protection of the rights of labor without impairment of the rights of capital" into specific planks, that absorbs the platform-makers. The party is also expected to take a step forward in declaring for the suffrage Federal amendment. Virgil Hinshaw, the National Chairman, proclaims himself especially hopeful of the support of the Southern Progressives, for in the South prohibition has been a part of Progressive legislation. In the matter of nominees, while Mr. Hinshaw fails to mention Bryan as a possibility, he does name not merely Foss, Sulzer, and Hanly, but Henry Ford. Old-school Prohibitionists must be a little apprehensive lest a hodge-podge of new issues obscure the one always before "paramount."

Nearly $7,000 was spent for Senator Cummins in the Oregon primaries, and nearly $5,000 for Burton. Yet the winning candidate has no report at all, which means that less than $50 was spent in his interest. This does not include, however, the cost of getting Hughes's name upon the ballot against his will, this not coming within the provisions of the Corrupt Practices act! There was a candidate for the Republican nomination for President, named Lockwood, who reports spending 10 cents. A Democratic candidate for the nomination for District Attorney in one county admits the expenditure of 25 cents, but he had no opposition. What one does not like to see is reports of money spent by candidates for judgeships and public-service commissionerships. Yet it is not much worse than the expenditure of so large a sum as $3,000 in the vain attempt to nominate a man for Congress, or of $2,000 to name another for Secretary of State.

"Grandfather" laws seem like ancient history now, but Florida is to vote upon one in November. North Carolina's expired by limitation eight years ago. But the proposed amendment to the Florida Constitution reads as if the State feared for its life. Anybody who wants to vote there, if the amendment is adopted, must not only pass the usual tests, but in addition be able to read, write, and "interpret" any section of the State Constitution, and own five hundred dollars' worth of property. To these provisions, which have been found more than sufficient in other States to keep the black man in his "place," Florida adds the clause that any one who was entitled to vote in any State or Territory on or before January 1, 1867, or any lineal descendant of such person, may vote regardless of the state of his knowledge of the Constitution or of his poverty. It is possible that this exemption is made in order to catch the votes of ignorant white men, but why, in that case, the sinister word "interpret"? The ablest citizen in the State could not meet this test if he faced a hostile election official who had the boldness to assert his power.

How many Americans would be able to identify three or four of the Latin-American statesmen honored by busts in the Gallery of Patriots of the Pan-American Union building? Purely as a part of liberal culture, it is regrettable that, as Secretary McAdoo stated in his address to the National Educational Convention, American history and geography are taught as if they began and ended with the history and geography of the United States. The Spanish tongue has gained a sure foothold in the high schools and colleges, and thousands more are pursuing it every year. The study of commercial conditions in South America is becoming fairly wide. But as yet American school children know almost nothing of the Latin-American struggle for independence and for stable republican governments, nothing of Latin-American literature, and nothing of the very respectable work of Latin-American artists and scientists. This ignorance can very easily be combated by a little attention to the cultural and historical aspects of Latin-American affairs in work offered primarily for commercial objects; and the Secretary of the Treasury speaks a word in season to high-school and college teachers. Already several universities have attempted special effort in the investigation of South American history, and there are few but offer some courses in it; but to reach a wide audience education in literature and history must be combined with that of the more utilitarian sort.

Such an instance of race coöperation in the South as that reported by Dr. George E. Haynes, of Nashville, shines against the atrocities of Waco, and the scores of other lynchings which persist year after year. Early last spring a disastrous fire made homeless some 2,500 people of both races in the poorer residential district of Nashville. With the assistance of the Negro Board of Trade, Dr. Haynes immediately established an office near the fire zone and set about giving both temporary and permanent relief. White citizens started a similar movement with headquarters across the street. Soon the negro workers were asked to come over and join forces with the whites so that the relief work could be centralized. The colored organization made so good an impression by its methods that several leading white citizens joined with colored men in issuing a call for an organization to deal with social problems. As a result, the Public Welfare League has been established and work started through committees on delinquency, housing, and health, and employment and relief. "The interest has become so active," says Dr. Haynes, "that both white and colored people are united in the same organization." This seems to be in the best sense a league for the public welfare.

To give company to the monthly which published a short story "lifted" from Frank Norris, a New York newspaper has discovered in a weekly another that, with a Mexican setting, is a replica of Maupassant's "Boule de Suif." It has always been thought half-legitimate to levy on foreign genius. Older readers may remember the lady who used to make it a regular business to "adapt" French novels under her own name. Disraeli's taking of a funeral oration from Thiers, the eulogy by J. J. Ingalls which was discovered to have been appropriated from Massillon, will always be famous. It is not so often that a Kitchener is accused of borrowing from a Curzon. But that two such borrowings should have slipped into well-edited periodicals provokes wonder how far plagiarism might be carried on undetected. The world's fund of fiction is so vast, so small a fraction can be known to any one man, that if it were attempted on a wide scale editors would pay for one piece of stolen goods after another. Doubtless there is much undiscovered stealing—it was the merest accident that convicted Charles Reade of poaching on a Frenchwoman's preserve, and the noise led to the discovery that two other Englishmen and a German had helped themselves to the same story.

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SUBMARINE MERCHANTMEN.

In no grudging manner will the enterprise and daring of the German sailors who on Sunday brought a submarine into the harbor of Baltimore be acclaimed. All persons interested in marine development and in feats of seamanship—even Germany's enemies in the war—will recognize and applaud the skill displayed in this unprecedented voyage from Heligoland to the Virginia Capes, attended by frequent disappearances under water. It is not merely the distance traversed that makes the great novelty. Submarines have sailed as far from home before, no doubt. But here is an undersea boat which is not a war vessel, which was built especially for the purpose of resuming direct communication by water between Germany and the United States, and which successfully accomplished her maiden voyage despite two blockading squadrons and all the perils of the deep. It is an achievement which commands praise and congratulation from all the world.

This German naval success is, frankly, more sentimental than of large practical result. It is a sort of triumphant symbol of defiance of the sea-power of Great Britain. She keeps the chief German ports inaccessible on the surface of the ocean, but now comes the proof that German resources and intrepidity are sufficient to reëstablish routes of travel and trade by water, though it must be under it. This must be the main source of satisfaction to Germans in what has been done. They should be aware, of course, that no great amount of commerce can be transacted by means of submarines. The cost would ordinarily be prohibitive. The freight carried could make no real showing in the great ocean trade of Germany, as it was before the war. True, some important ends could be gained if regular sailings of submarine merchantmen were to be undertaken between Germany and this country. For one thing, they could restore mail communication, now so delayed and interfered with or absolutely cut off by the British censor. German newspapers could again be brought quickly to American readers, as has not been the case for several months. Our Government has made its formal protest against the excesses of the British censorship of foreign mails, but has got little satisfaction, unless it be in the promise to expedite the forwarding of unobjectionable matter. But if German submarines are hereafter to ply back and forth, the British censor's occupation will be gone, so far as letters from Germany are concerned. We trust it will be.

In the excitement caused by the arrival in our waters of the German U-boat, many hasty and foolish things have been said of its effect upon international law, the rules of war, etc. One very positive Senator at Washington is convinced that we must treat this submarine as a warship, and that consequently the twenty-four-hour rule must be applied. His reasoning appears to be that nobody ever heard of a submarine being launched except for purposes of war, and that consequently the Deutschland must be a ship of war. But all this goes for nothing, of course, as soon as it is shown that she has no torpedoes—not even any torpedo-tubes—and carries no guns. This makes her purely a commercial ship. Indeed, she seems not to be even under the control of the German Admiralty. So careful of international law have the Germans been in this instance that the submarine at Baltimore is merely a private venture. If it succeeds, other undersea boats may be added to what will then be an under-water line, so long as the war lasts. If the submarine Deutschland is as described, there can be no question of her status as a ship of commerce. She is free to come and go as she pleases in our waters, subject to capture by enemy cruisers.

It has been rashly contended that the coming of this peaceful submarine makes rubbish of the established laws of war at sea. How can the right of "visit and search" any longer be worth a marlinspike, when a merchant ship can dive like a loon on the approach of an enemy cruiser? And what becomes of blockades when vessels like the Deutschland can glide securely beneath the iron ring kept about Germany by the British navy? One of the legal definitions of a blockade is that it must be "effective"; and does not the way in which the Deutschland snapped its fin-keels at it show that the Allied blockade is no longer effective, and hence that all neutral commerce may demand free access to German ports? This can hardly be intended seriously. An occasional submarine merchantman getting through would be only a blockade-runner; and a few successful blockade-runners do not prove that a blockade is not effective. Besides, the law of blockade must be taken for what it is and in the circumstances to which it is applicable. An aeroplane flying over a blockading squadron would not demonstrate that the blockade was not valid in law; no more can a submarine slipping under the cruisers on blockade.

Neither as affecting international law nor regarded from the point of view of international trade will the feat of the German submarine have any great significance. In all minds, however, whether friendly or hostile to Germany, it must stand to-day as a high venture of the sea, scientifically planned and carried through triumphantly with adroitness and bravery.

THIRD PARTIES AND THEIR LEADERS.

The meeting of the Progressive National Committee in Chicago inspired the Chicago *Evening Post* to praise of the disheartened leaders and lament over the dead party. Those enumerated—Johnson, Victor Murdock, William Allen White, Parker, McCormick, Merriam, Garfield, Pinchot, and others—make up a list that will for some time remain in the public mind. Yet their rôle will be rather pathetic. They were not leaders in any large sense, as is shown by the fact that when Roosevelt abdicated they were utterly unable to maintain the party organization. They now have to take a minor place in one of the other parties. Their fate is another evidence of the fact that third parties do not produce great leaders. This is one of the reasons why they soon die. In this respect the record of the Progressives is much that of other third parties.

This seems the stranger in that third parties have usually represented the social discontent that is supposed to give birth to popular leaders. The history of such parties—Labor Reform, Greenback, Populist, Progressive—shows that, as their appeal has widened, their effort to capture a leader from the older political bodies has grown more earnest. The Labor Reform party set out to convert two old party men of independent views—Judge David Davis, of Illinois, and Gov. Newton Booth, of California. Both men withheld all but sympathy. The Greenbackers had more strength, yet were compelled to the same opportunism. Their one true leader was Gen. Weaver, who fell short of the abilities of any number of contemporary Republicans and Democrats. This party also courted Gov. Booth, it nominated Peter Cooper at the age of eighty, and it had recourse to such makeshift candidates as Gen. Ben Butler. The Populists were in much the same case. They found force, but not leaders, in men like Peffer, of Kansas; Allen, of Nebraska, and Kyle, of South Dakota; and in 1892, when they made

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their best independent showing, it was their great ambition to persuade Judge Walter Gresham to accept their nomination. The Populists and Progressives really scored their only national successes when they raided their enemies' camps. The former party obtained partial control of Democracy by the nomination of Bryan in 1896; the latter made the best showing of all third parties under Roosevelt. But these very triumphs led to reabsorption into the old parties.

The question why third parties have never had first-class leaders is not difficult to answer. The early organizations were too ill-balanced to attract the best type of intellect; and even the Populists and Progressives were not fitted, on their own showing, to appeal to statesmen of established reputation. Weaver believed thoroughly in what he called "industrial emancipation," and the measures proposed by the Greenbackers to effect it, but no great leader of the time, however alive to the complex problems developing after the Civil War, could have followed him in this. The Populists' advocacy of free silver was accompanied by a championing of other issues, and a general hostility to capital, that was sure to repel any one who really hoped to interest the people in sound politics. Not even Bryan would have cared to stand for free silver in 1896 except upon the pedestal offered by one of the great parties—the charge of "political rain-making," with general luridity of statement, had made Populism so distrusted. The genuine statesman, in short, was wholly unwilling to have the new party appropriate him. Moreover, in this country, economic development has been so swift, and time has so quickly swept some third-party issues into the limbo of the ridiculous, while showing that others could be taken up by the old parties, that the younger political organizations have not been able long to claim a true reason for existence. Free soil, indeed, virtually developed a third party until it came to have its own leaders; but the life of third-party issues has been, as a rule, too short to develop great third-party leaders.

A point of view in which Progressives are to-day taking cold comfort is that which regards as a main function of third parties the inoculation of the older bodies. For this outstanding leaders are not necessary; and it is rather assisted than otherwise by the absorption of the third party. There is no doubt that many zealous Progressives will now attempt to become what a Progressive-Republican like Dolliver was in his time, and what Bourne and Cummins have been since. It may well prove to be but a temporary eclipse that Merriam, White, Allen, Garfield, Johnson, and others suffer in going back to the party from which they fled in disgust. They may make their voices heard again to some effect. The Progressive rank and file will expect them to justify their old place as minor leaders, and in so doing to help justify the Progressive party for ever having lived at all.

THE NEW STATUS OF SUFFRAGE.

A Washington dispatch reports that Mr. Hughes is expected to come out, in his speech of acceptance, or later, for the amendment to the Federal Constitution giving the vote to women. Whether this is true, we have no means of knowing. If Mr. Hughes is converted to the cause of suffrage, it would be natural for him to set about aiding its triumph by means of national action. For he is a strong nationalist. Without any desire to limit or override the rights and functions of the States, his instinct is to appeal, in questions affecting the whole country, to a direct exertion of the Federal power. In his address before the Bar Association of New York last winter, this tendency of his public thinking was made clearly manifest. And if he has made up his mind that woman suffrage is now a national question pressing for settlement, and exercising a distracting and divisive influence on our political life so long as it remains unsettled, it would not be surprising to find him urging that it be dealt with in a national way.

Whatever may be the attitude of Mr. Hughes, it is certain that woman suffrage has acquired an entirely new status. No longer is it a suppliant at the doors of party conventions. It has gained such strength that both parties have now been compelled to bow to it. To this fact not the due attention has been given in the excitement over candidates, over the European war, and over our possible embroiling with Mexico. To have made a conquest of both Republicans and Democrats in a single year is a signal achievement. It puts the suffrage cause forward by a great leap. In both party platforms the principle is conceded. The Democrats "recommend the extension of the franchise to the women of the country . . . upon the same terms as to men." The Republican plank was even more emphatic. It "favors the extension of the suffrage to women" because it is "a measure of justice to one-half of the adult people of this country."

Yes, but everything was to be left to the States. Extension "by the States" was the Democratic phrase. And the Republicans recognized "the right of each State to settle this question for itself." The intent of this, it is said, was plain. It was meant to head off a suffrage amendment to the Federal Constitution. But this does not necessarily follow. Even a Federal amendment has to be submitted to the States. Passed by a two-thirds vote in Congress, it still requires ratification by three-fourths of the States. In this sense, and technically speaking, it would be the States that would settle the suffrage question for themselves, even supposing the attempt were made by Federal initiative. Thus if any candidate for the Presidency, or any Representative or Senator, is living in mortal terror of violating his party platform by advocating an amendment of the national Constitution, let him be reassured! He could salve his conscience and soothe his constituents by stoutly maintaining that this way of extending the franchise was really "by the States."

We would not seriously argue the matter on so narrow a ground. It is not a case for device or subterfuge. Rather must the appeal be to equity and justice and a large view of the nation's true interest. The trick would be for both great parties to endorse woman suffrage without meaning it; to make a promise with no purpose of keeping it. And is it not the fact that to send the women back to fight in State after State—conditions being what they are—is a somewhat clumsy expedient? If the road to State amendment were open and easy, the case would be different. But in many States the processes of Constitutional amendment are made so complex and dilatory that even the getting to a vote is very difficult. A proposed Federal amendment, on the contrary, would go quickly and automatically before the Legislatures of all the States, so that a decision could be reached at a comparatively early date. The amendment could be made an issue in the election of Legislatures, and thus it would be virtually a referendum to the voters. And the point is that a more direct and swift method could be tried than the slow and roundabout effort in separate States.

This is, in few words, the argument for the amendment now pending in Congress. Its effective section is: "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or

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by any State on account of sex." Thirty years ago, or even ten, such a proposal would have seemed ill-timed and hopeless. But since then a transformation has come. Far more men than formerly now consider it expedient to give women the vote. Many convinced opponents of woman suffrage think that its coming is only a question of time. And with both parties now committed to it—the only hesitation being about the method of making it the law of the land—why should not the new standing and heightened importance of the question be recognized in the broadest national way? But the most convincing argument is that woman's suffrage is an obstacle which ought to be got out of the path; so that, this contention being removed, American citizens might be free to devote their energies to the greater public needs, undeterred and undivided by sex.

CROPS IN THE WARRING COUNTRIES

Any one who seeks the facts of the agricultural situation in Europe must, from the scantiness of the data and the difficulty of making deductions from mere statistics, find himself far short of full knowledge. The conflicting evidence is well illustrated in the case of Germany. Against the assertions of officials and press that the 1915 crop was a partial failure, we have the statement of our Department of Agriculture and certain British crop statisticians that the year's production was of average yield and quality. The 1914 crop had been poor, and that of 1913 rather good. By our Government's figures, the wheat crop of Germany last year was 160 million bushels, as against 145 millions in 1914 and 170 millions in 1913. The rye crop was 475 million bushels, as against 410 millions in 1914 and 480 millions in 1913; while barley ran much higher than in 1914 and only slightly less than in 1913. Yet the figures may be as misleading as those for our own billion-bushel wheat crop, which fail to show how much of the grain was spoiled by harvest rains. There is the added difficulty of determining what part of increased or decreased production may be due to emphasis on certain types of husbandry, of finding in what ways the Teutonic Powers are relying on imports, and how far the Allies have deliberately pushed agriculture aside to swell their armies with farm labor.

It is clear that in all the belligerent countries agriculture is suffering. On the situation in France and Britain our information is fairly full. In France the losses of the farmers have been freely revealed by the Government and by a recent statement of M. Sagnier, of the Ministry of Agriculture, in the *Revue Scientifique*. The country was caught in the midst of the wheat harvest by the war, and though non-combatants rose to the emergency, the average production of 86 million quintals fell in 1914 to 79 millions. With the subsequent requisitioning of horses, and the calling up of the classes of 1915 and 1916, the position of the farms became more and more precarious. The census of 1915 showed a reduction in crop-area, including the conquered provinces, of over five million acres. More discouraging still was the great reduction in yield per acre, due to poor cultivation and insufficient fertilizing, which brought the total wheat production down to two-thirds the average for the years 1903-07, when the crop was enough for home consumption. Of 200 beet-sugar factories at the beginning of war, less than 70 were running in 1915, and the production had fallen from 750,000 tons to 300,000. The number of horses, according to the Ministry, had dropped from 3,200,000 in 1913 to 2,100,000 at the end of 1915; and the number of cattle from 15,000,000 to 12,500,000. This last reduction was largely owing to the wasteful methods of levying on cattle at the beginning, and has been checked by huge importations of frozen meats. But of the 2,500,000 head lost, nearly 2,000,000 were cows. The number of sheep and hogs has been reduced one-fourth. The Government has in hand plans for the introduction of labor-saving machinery to make the land yield the utmost; but with men, animals, and transportational resources all cut down, M. Sagnier asserts that the outlook for 1916 is much darker than in 1915.

The United Kingdom has more nearly held its own, but it, too, is suffering hardships. Britain's wheat production is negligible, as is its barley crop; the one was much augmented by an increase of 20 per cent. in the acreage, the other fell off. Its oats crop, by far its most important cereal, rose from 66 million bushels in 1913 and 63 millions in 1914 to 68 millions in 1915. Nevertheless, the cultivated acreage decreased in 1915 by about 80,000 acres; and, above all, there have been very large losses in horses and men. Of the first, the reduction amounted to 10 per cent. of the 1,400,000 horses in England and Wales. Of the 1,000,000 men employed in agriculture before the war, Mr. Acland stated in his recent report to Parliament that 300,000 had enlisted, and their places could be but imperfectly taken by the old men, the boys, and the 35,000 women who had registered as willing to work on the land. Little faith is placed in the usefulness of prisoners for farm work, and far more is hoped from the employment of detachments of troops still left at home. All told, Mr. Acland reports "the danger-point of gravely decreased production" already reached, and states that there is a tendency to the replacing of crops which need much labor with those needing little. The supply of farm labor in Great Britain before the war was inadequate, owing to the exodus to the dominions and the cities. In cutting it down by nearly a third, the huge enrolment in Kitchener's army during the past year has greatly weakened the agricultural output.

From the meagre facts it is impossible to argue confidently concerning Germany or any other country. But it is certain that Germany is suffering not less than England and France from a shortage of horses and men for farm labor. The Allies have been able to replace their horses; France alone has imported 300,000. Germany cannot. Nor had the Germans attained a greater use of farm machinery than their opponents. In both England and France American tractors are being imported and placed upon the land for coöperative use by the farmers, just as both countries look forward after the war to encouraging such coöperative use of labor-saving implements; and here, again, Germany is denied foreign assistance. The mobilization of the labor of non-combatants and prisoners in Germany may be such that she has partly overcome her handicap; but so far as lack of labor plays a part in the German agricultural situation, good weather and other favorable circumstances cannot alone give her a maximum yield.

PERSONALITY IN NEWSPAPERS.

The purchase of the New York *Sun* by the owner of the New York *Press*, coming so quickly on the heels of the disappearance of *Harper's Weekly*, is a fresh reminder of the instability of newspaper enterprises. No one in journalism could witness the passing of the *Sun* without genuine regret. However one may have differed from its editorial policies, it has been a real institution. Newspaper men turned to it with admiration for its style, its make-up, its presentation of the news, and the cleverness of its cynical editorial writing. Whatever success Mr. Munsey may achieve—and we wish him full measure—he cannot preserve the old *Sun*. It will doubtless remain a clean-cut paper,

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but it can hardly have the well-known snap and sparkle, nor go on in the full Dana tradition. The very fact that it now obtains the Associated Press service, through its amalgamation with the *Press*, will tend to quench a good deal of its individuality.

The interesting thing is that, despite the tendency of newspapers to become institutions, it is still evident that personality does count in American journalism. The *Sun* began to change from the day of Dana's death. *Harper's Weekly* began to fail when Schurz retired—perhaps it had already weakened on the business side before then. If there is a criticism to be made of Mr. Munsey's chain of papers, it is that they show the lack of that subtle sense of an abiding personality—not quite assured even by an owner's personal attention—which goes to make the *individuality* of a newspaper, and the absence of a body of political opinion profoundly held and enthusiastically supported, of a course well marked and daringly steered. One's mind naturally turns to the Springfield *Republican*, with its many decades of quiet but inestimably valuable service to the country, reinforced and upheld by the fine personalities of the two Bowleses, with its standards still successfully maintained by members of that family. However great the odds, they fought persistently for their principles, and had their reward, not in millions, but in public respect and appreciation and the consciousness of lives well spent in patriotic labor.

The case of William R. Nelson and the Kansas City *Star* is another instance where dogged character quickly told. He was a successful contractor when, without special training, he turned to the newspaper field. When he died he and the *Star* made up together Kansas City's foremost institution. Men knew and trusted his sincerity and his honesty, and his power in his community was extraordinary. But who can prophesy that the prestige which he gave to his newspaper will long remain undimmed? It may be laid down as an axiom that no newspaper is so great or so powerful that it cannot be destroyed almost overnight, if it itself furnishes reasons for people to doubt its judgment or its sincerity. The London *Times*, for all its prestige, never got over the terrible blunder it made in the Parnell-Pigott case. If any newspaper in the world seemed at that time a permanent institution, it was the London *Times;* yet it was on the verge of failure when Lord Northcliffe took it over. While he has been able largely to increase its circulation, it has not been possible for him to replace it on its old pedestal; it thunders no longer. None the less, it must be admitted that we here in New York have a newspaper which has within a few years risen to a foremost position without the owner's having obtruded his personality. Mr. Ochs has modestly refrained from pushing himself to the front; still the credit of the rise of the *Times* is his, and it is only fair to suppose that in asking Mr. George McAneny to share the responsibility of management with him, he has paid another tribute to the value of a strong character in connection with a great daily whose chief stock in trade is public confidence.

There may be other changes in the New York newspaper world. Mr. Munsey is right in saying that there have been too many newspapers; other consolidations or changes in ownership would surprise no one. For instance, for years there has been endless speculation as to the future of the *Herald* and the *Telegram* when another management takes the place of its present absentee ownership. Change is the law of life in the newspaper world as well as elsewhere, and one has only to recall the long list of newspapers, such as the *Recorder*, the *Daily News*, the *Daily Graphic*, and now the *Press*, that have sprung up and lived each for its brief space, to become convinced that whatever the future may hold, the day has not yet come when newspaper properties can have the stability of banks or public service corporations. But it is only fair to say that here in New York conditions have been far more stable than in some other cities, notably Chicago, where the numerous newspaper wrecks of the past are still clearly remembered.

The Associated Press is, of course, the gainer by the merging of the *Sun*, for it had long been the severest critic of the Associated Press, and only recently endeavored to induce the Government to proceed against it under the Sherman act—but in vain. Meanwhile the cost of separate news-gathering became, in part because of the war, too great to be borne by any single journal or by a small group of papers, so that the *Sun's* entry into the Associated Press astonishes no one conversant with the newspaper situation. It would be a genuine misfortune, however, if the Sun should wholly abandon its separate and usually excellent news service from abroad. There remain but three news-gathering associations to supply the public with its news, one an afternoon service; but it is neither likely nor desirable that there should ever come a time without some competition in this field.

Foreign Correspondence

THE NEW MAP OF EUROPE—ALLIES AND NEUTRALS.

By STODDARD DEWEY.

PARIS, June 24.

In the American philosophy which is ready to negotiate a give-and-take peace in five seconds, one thing is not dreamed of. Whatever may happen, the map of Europe can never be what it was before the war.

Either Germany will win out as she planned—and this is no longer thought possible—or the Allies will have the victory which they hope. Or else the war will end in more or less of a "deadlock"—a "drawn game"—"with neither victors nor vanquished"—some kind of a *status quo ante bellum*—and this the heads of certain neutral nations have already taken occasion to suggest, if not recommend. In any of these events, the map of Europe is sure to be remade. "Look at your situation on the map" is the German Chancellor's despairing cry when he finds the Allies will not even discuss peace with him. The Allies are beginning to discuss—and neutrals are beginning to air their apprehensions—as to what the situation on the map shall be *post bellum*.

The Swiss *Gazette de Lausanne* has just published the "funeral oration of *Mittel-Europa*." It is made up of lofty utterances of Count Julius Andrassy the younger. His father was the Hungarian statesman who sat beside Bismarck at the Congress of Berlin and with him obtained for Austria sad Bosnia-Herzegovina, and later concluded with him the close union of the Dual Monarchy with Imperial Germany—a Duplice which grew into the Triple Alliance. In his work came long afterwards the tragedy of Serajevo, which furnished the occasion for this desolating war. Meanwhile France and Russia had become allies, and together they came into a Triple Entente with England. And this has became Quadruple with the secession of Italy from the side of Germany and Austria-Hungary and her accession to France, England, and Russia, and Belgium and Servia, Portugal and Japan. How ancient it all seems in our latest preoccupation.

This fortnight of June in Paris has its echoes from the Mittel-Europa, which the Swiss writer inters. The Allies' Economic Conference has decided at least what they cannot do together against Germany's Zollverein, which was to bind Austria in chains and Hungary—likewise Bulgaria and Turkey and as many others as stood in the way from Berlin to Constantinople and Bagdad—in fetters of iron. And the French press has very commonly taken the liberty of reminding Rumania that it will not be enough to come in just at the end of the war when the Allies' victory is assured in order that it shall receive in return the Hungarian territory of Transylvania, with its millions of "unredeemed" Rumanians.

Count Andrassy made his impassioned plea at Munich last month for "Austro-Germano-Magyar cohesion in view of vast Imperialist designs in the East and elsewhere." The Swiss writer observes: "The turn taken by the military operations on the Austro-Russian frontier gives a singularly old and outworn look to such literature."

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Suppose, indeed, that Germany wins, and Mittel-Europa comes into real existence instead of remaining the inconclusive dream of Pan-Germanists. From Antwerp to Constantinople, from the delta region of the Rhine to that of the Danube, there will be an Imperial Union, military and economic; and the territory of the Bagdad railway will prolong it through Asia. If it had not come so near achievement, we should think it the plan of some German university professor hypnotized by long looking at a globe.

Whether the Allies win much or little, their victory will limit the extent of Germany's Imperial Union. On the other hand, the realization of close economic union among the Allies would force Germany to devote her surviving energies to an aggressive counter-union with Austria and whatever other countries may stand with her. Hungarians who are fearful of the future draw back from Germany's strict Zollverein, which would prepare new wars. Such a customs union among the Allies is scarcely possible, but it may still be Germany's resource for recuperating her enfeebled powers of aggressiveness.

The *status quo* which neutrals, heedless of the justice or the prudence of the peace to be made, would impose on the Allies—without guarantee against future aggression—could not avoid this economic war. And that is why near-by neutrals as well as the Allies look for safety in changes of the map of Europe. At such changes Germany herself aimed in beginning this war for "hegemony." Only such changes, she has made her adversaries firmly believe, can keep her from beginning again.

The Swiss are first in the field with a proposal. It is nothing less than the neutralization of the whole course of the Rhine. Belgium had already been urged to insist at the peace-making on an extension of territory towards Luxemburg—she has a neighboring Luxemburg of her own—and far enough into present Germany to be able to guard her frontier for the future. There has always been a certain amount of French literature about the Rhine forming the natural frontier of France; and the Rhenish provinces would safely prolong Alsace-Lorraine when she is French once again.

Such literature, like much economic talk, plays around that which cannot be done. American schoolboys in my time conspired to free Australia from the British despot and make a republic of her—but their revolution could never come off, for each boy wished to be its George Washington.

It is not enough to dismiss the Swiss proposal with the obvious remark that the neutralization of Belgium did not prevent the present war, and that the problems of the Rhine valley are insoluble. The scheme may not be workable, just as Australian Premier Hughes may never get England to apostatize from the religion of free trade. Yet there is something in the idea which fits in with the impending and irrepressible crisis of the war's end. When Humanity, Civilization, Europe, the Allies, all find themselves unable to take an ell, they may at least take an inch.

Civilization, as this war has shown, does not move backward or forward by observation, or by a preconceived plan, but by a composition of forces physical and moral and along the resultant time-thrust. Now the thrust of the present time is not towards a vague future. There is a very definite alternative—Federalism, of which the Allies' Conference in Paris has just been a foretoken, or Imperialism, which centralizes and organizes for aggression; Nationalities, which are the preservation of free peoples, or Empires with subjects; Peace with prosperity among nations difficult to move to war, or recurring war among great nations armed at all points. All the holding of secret sessions by the French Parliament in these days has come about by reason of the organization of France in Republican ways, for it is these which prevent a country becoming an ever ready war-machine. The coming peace is to decide whether Europe shall be made up of democracies ruled for the people—by the peoples—or of nations ruled from the top down and personally conducted by the military.

When the first terrible days of war had shown conclusively the scandal to civilization of militarist aggression, ninety-three of the best-known wise men of Germany put forth their "appeal to the civilized world," which became a greater scandal still. One of its signers, Dr. Max Planck, physicist and professor of the University of Berlin, writes now: "The appeal signified explicitly that the men of science and art of Germany refused to separate their cause from that of the German army—for the German army is nothing else than the German nation in arms." *Quod erat demonstrandum.*

Whether the Allies will be able to work the needed changes in the map of Europe, whether the changes will make Poles and Bohemians, Danes of Schleswig, and Magyarized Rumanians, and the rest happy—why, all that is another story.

THE PASSING OF AMSTERDAM'S GHETTO

By A. J. BARNOUW.

THE HAGUE, June 12.

An interesting exhibition was opened last week in Amsterdam, an exhibition showing the history, manners, and customs of the Amsterdam Ghetto. It was organized by a Jewish committee who wished to remind their non-Jewish co-citizens of the important rôle which the Jewish population has played in the growth and development of the city, now that the Ghetto is doomed to disappear. For the City Council has voted for the demolition of the old Jewish quarter, which, picturesque to a degree in the artist's eye, had become an eyesore to the hygienist. The Council's verdict did not outrage Jewish feelings, for the Jews themselves had, in more than one respect, begun to loosen the ties which held their community together. A less strict adherence to the old ritualism and dogma, the spread of socialist tenets, the closer contact with the Gentile by an ever-increasing number of intermarriages, were the agents of a dissolution which the Council simply emphasized by giving it official recognition.

A Ghetto in the proper sense of the word has never existed in Amsterdam. For at no time have the Jews been forced to live together in a separate quarter walled off from the rest of the city so as to accentuate the difference between Christian and Jew. They stuck together voluntarily, they formed their Ghetto themselves. But, though free in their choice of residence, they possessed no civil rights in the days of the Republic. They were regarded as "subjects" of the Burgomasters, not as foreigners liable to expulsion. The craft-guilds were closed to them, so that they were driven to such professions as were not organized in corporations. First among these figures the diamond trade. It was the Portuguese Jews that took it up in Amsterdam and soon excelled their Christian competitors, who in 1748 made an attempt to check their ascendency by requesting the City Council to organize the trade in a guild, to which Jews should have entrance, but without a vote. But the Council refused the request and the Jews gradually gained monopoly of the Amsterdam diamond trade, which they retained until 1870. About that time the first Cape diamonds were brought to Amsterdam, and the rapid growth of the import from South Africa caused such a rise in the demand for skilled labor that the cutters and polishers were no longer recruited exclusively from among the Jews. From that date, Christians and Jews were seen working side by side in the mills, the latter forming, at present, two-thirds of the total of hands employed. This fusion of labor was another factor in the emancipation of the Jew from his seclusion in the Ghetto. A realistic picture of this latter-day factory life is given in "Levensgang" (Life's Way), a Zolaistic novel by Israel Querido, who in his early days was a diamond-cutter himself and a sharer in the life and the hardships of the Ghetto and the trade.

In this author and his work the character of the emancipated Jew is strikingly exemplified. For the Jew who cuts himself loose from the Ghetto is far from being a nondescript entity, neither Jew nor Christian. Deprived of that sense of security which the Ghetto life with its uniformity of religious observances naturally gives, the Jew feels challenged to assert the virtues of his race. The more the Jew is absorbed politically by the civil community of the nation, the more distinctly his Jewishness becomes accentuated in all he does. During the last two decades it has become customary to talk and write about Jewish literature and Jewish art, as the work of Jewish authors and painters was felt to be intentionally expressive of racial idiosyncrasies. Josef Israels, in his later days, was not unconscious of this tendency. From the portrayal of the North Sea fisherman at home and on the beach, he turned, in his old age, to the study of Ghetto scenes, like the ragged pawnbroker on the doorstep of his mysterious shop, a Jewish wedding ceremony, or scenes from the Old Testament such as the capital picture of Saul and David in the Municipal Gallery at Amsterdam. Eduard Frankfort, who belongs to a younger generation, is at present the chief exponent in colors of Jewish life. But in the world of letters the Dutch Israelite plays a still more prominent part. Here it is not only the subject matter which gives the novel its Jewish stamp, it is even more by its style that this literary art is typically Jewish. Querido is a magician in his handling of words. He conjures them up from an inexhaustive store of language, description in his novels follows description in an endless array of picturesque adjectives and nouns, an exuberance of words that suffocates the reader's interest in the tale the author has to tell. His beautiful words are dearer to him than his story, he shows them off admiringly, as a jeweller holds his sparkling brilliants up to the light. It is this incontinence of word-love, if I may call it that, which characterizes nearly all these Dutch Jewish writers, the

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novelist Querido, the critic Van Campen, the poet Jacob Israel de Haan. The last of these is the inspired prophet of the Jewish revival, the singer of the new "Jewish Hymn" celebrating the mystic beauty of the old religious feasts and wording the longing of his race for the ultimate return to Palestine. Zionism is the gospel he preaches, and an unshakable faith in the invincibility of the Jewish race is his creed.

That magnificent Hebrew pride, so different from the fawning servility of the older generation, is the main power of this revival. Its weakness is in the lack of an international language and literature. For this Hebrew movement in Holland is only one phase in the general renascence of the race all over the world. There must be prophets like De Haan in Russia and America, in all countries of neutral and warring Europe. But the Yiddish which is the common language of them all is not a fit instrument for the prophet's inspired song. In Holland, as in America, it is a mere jargon of everyday life, lacking the finer qualities which go to the making of poetic diction. Hence Zionism, in the field of letters, is doomed to remain a national and polyglot movement, enriching each separate literature rather than adding force to the international action. In Holland this gain from Hebrew fiction is gratefully acknowledged.

Notes from the Capital

W. J. BURNS.

William John Burns, whose recent activities in the Seymour case in New York have kept him "head-lined" in the newspapers there, is well known in Washington, where for several years he was a member of the Secret Service detailed for special work. It would be hard to find a man with less outward resemblance to the Old Sleuth of the detective stories. His face, though not so large and smiling as ex-President Taft's, suggests it strongly in the lines radiating in all directions from the nose. His frame is powerful, he has a double chin, and his girth is full without being excessive. His eyes are light, symmetrically set, steady of gaze, but not piercing; and temperamentally he strikes you as well poised, never giving way to undue enthusiasms, and equally avoiding aloofness.

There is no single key to the secret of Burns's success, which has as many phases as the wind. First, he makes it so rigid a rule to take nothing for granted that I venture to say, if the trail of a forgery, for instance, seemed to lead into the White House, not even the President could escape scrutiny. Again, he works up a case as a student commonly prepares a thesis, looking over his ground with the utmost thoroughness, settling upon a definite assumption of fact, and then marshalling every occurrence, tradition, argument, guess, or theory which can be made to pay tribute to it. Also, he is absolutely tireless in body and mind, contemptuous of anything which gets in his way, and especially of the conventional proprieties where they threaten to shield a suspect whom he is after. Finally, he does not attempt a capture till he feels sure that he has got his quarry past the possibility of escape. Of course, he is as liable to mistakes as other human beings; but the multitude and magnitude of his unequivocal successes have led the public to presume the guilt of any one upon whom he pounces at the end of his painstaking pursuit.

Whoever believes that "crooks" are born, and not made, will quarrel with the notion cherished by Burns that the best of us will bear watching, and that no absolute assurance can be drawn from an apparently spotless past career. I have been present on more than one occasion when he has put a man of supposed virtuous character through the closest ordeal. This consists of being seated in a private room, face to face with Burns, alone or in the presence of perhaps one other person who is supposed to know the details of the case, and questioned. Burns, satisfied that he has caught his man, gives him a chance to confess. If he does not yield at once, Burns inquires why he does not, and perhaps proceeds to reason with him as to the practical wisdom of clearing his conscience without further delay. If that fails, Burns seems to be pointed towards his next move by the emotional symptoms of the suspect. Bravado he meets with a manner which shows very plainly that it is thrown away on him. Evasion draws from him volley after volley of stinging interrogatories: "Now tell me what first tempted you to do this." "Can you pretend that you did not know better than to do such a thing?" "Come—out with it!—you thought it wasn't *very* bad, didn't you?" "Have you ever done anything of this sort before?" And so on and on, till the squirming fellow inadvertently blurts out an answer which will bear only one construction, and is therefore equivalent to an admission of guilt. After that, the rest is comparatively easy.

Naturally, the greatest difficulty is experienced where the suspect shows neither effrontery nor weakness, but calmly answers the questions put to him and waits for more. Such instances are rare, and usually the man with the unshifting mien of innocence, if really guilty, will be betrayed by some glance, or intonation of voice, or request for repetition, which, however faint in itself, telegraphs its confirmatory message to the sensitive intelligence of the inquisitor. In short, it is his own wits, pitted against the nerves of his victims, in which Burns reposes his trust, rather than on physical force. He scorns the revolver habit, and goes boldly in among the criminals he is studying, with his brain always alert, but his pockets empty of weapons. The professional evil-doers know this; but his despisal of danger and the cocksure resolution with which he sets about his work constitute a safeguard as effective as a portable arsenal.

Burns, who is now about fifty-five years old, began life as an assistant in his father's tailor shop in Columbus, O. The father, active in the city's public affairs, happened to be made Police Commissioner. William, who had always taken a boy's interest in mystery stories, came thus into contact with the local detective force, and one day criticised its method of going at a particularly involved case. The elder Burns chuckled somewhat at these comments.

"So you think you could do the job better than my men?" he asked, with amusement.

"I know I could," was the lad's instant answer.

To prove his confidence, he went at the case himself, caught his man, and brought him in. From that hour his calling has been unquestioned.

TATTLER.

The Caliphate

By D. B. MACDONALD.

The Caliphate is the symbol of the traditionally and theoretically essential and necessary political unity of the Moslem world. The religious observances of Moslems—their daily worship, fasting in Ramadan, pilgrimage, etc.—may symbolize their religious unity; but the business of the Caliph is the administration of the affairs of their world in the widest sense, and the conception of his office looks back to a time in the remote past when these duties were really carried out and forward to a time in the millennial future when the carrying out of these duties will again be possible. At the present time, therefore, to call any one a Caliph means to assert his right to administer politically the affairs of the Moslem world. A Caliph, consequently, is to be sharply distinguished from a Pope, with whose office his is too often confused, in that he, first, is only an executive and has no right to develop or define what is of faith for Moslems—that is done by the Moslem people through their "agreement"—and, secondly, his executive functions cover all sides of life, political, legal, religious.* The interest, therefore, of the present situation lies in this question: Will the Caliph of the future continue to maintain this claim to the headship of a politically unified Islam, and will Islam continue to feel itself a political unity over against the non-Moslem world, or will the principle of nationality prevail among the Moslem peoples as it has elsewhere and their Caliphate become merely a symbol of religious unity? Caliph is the title used here as the one most commonly known with us; but Moslems use in its place, as often as not, *Amir al-mu'minin*, "Commander of the Faithful," and even *Imam*, "Leader," taking that word in its highest sense. These three are practically interchangeable.

The status, duties, and rights of a Caliph are made most intelligible by the early historical development. The theory of the Caliphate, too, is based upon the precedents then established and upon a few sayings which, though put into the mouth of Mohammed, were really forged to support one political party or another. Mohammed at Medina had administered directly all the affairs of his people; he had been, like Moses and the Hebrew Judges, their individual and absolute ruler and judge. As Prophet, he had also been a first-hand source of faith and law; dogmas and legal rulings he could produce at need. This position of his was strictly in accordance with Arab, and

*The theory of the Caliphate has been repeatedly treated by Moslem theologians and canonists. It is hardly in place here to give references to Arabic texts; but two such treatments exist in translation. One of these is Léon Ostrorog's "Traité de droit public musulman" (Paris, 1901), a translation of the "Ahkam as-sultaniya" of Mawardi, Vol. I, pp. 89-195, and the other is De Slane's translation of "Les Prolégomènes d'Ibn Khaldoun" (Paris, 1863), Vol. I, pp. 384-444. These supplement one another very happily.

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indeed Semitic, ideas. To the authority, in a sense shading into *auctoritas*, of an Arab chief over his tribe he had added the infallibility of a prophet and the unifying and arousing force of a new idea—Islam. When he died, then, his position had to be filled, so far as that was possible. Of his four immediate "successors" (*Khalifa*, Caliph, means "successor")—the only ones recognized by all Islam—the first, the third, and the fourth were chosen by elective councils and in rapidly increasing political turmoil, and the second was nominated by the first.

It was thus fixed for the Moslem world, at least for that large portion of it which is called Sunnite, that its head should be freely elected by the people or nominated by his predecessor, and then accepted by the people. In theory, therefore, the power is of the people functioning as a free democracy, but the people chooses to be governed by a single individual who is then given absolute power and is to be obeyed implicitly as long as he breaks no essential law of Islam; if he does, he may be recalled by the people which appointed him. He appears, externally, to be an autocrat, but is not, and the people always retains the sacred right of insurrection. It is a disputed point whether tyranny and personal immorality are valid grounds for recall. One school of constitutional law so holds, but another teaches that so long as the Caliph is a Moslem and an effective ruler he must be obeyed. Into the further details as to whether tyranny or immorality deprives him of his office *ipso facto*, or whether he must be formally deposed, and again whether the people *must* depose him for these reasons, or only *may*, it is not necessary to enter.

Again, by the necessities of the case, the functions of this single ruler came in time to be discharged by a multitude of officials. The Caliphate was put into commission; but each official acted by delegated authority, and it is laid down as one of the responsibilities of the Caliph that he should personally satisfy himself that his deputies are doing their duty. Practically, the Caliph vanished behind a screen of administrative machinery and only at crises of the state did the people have any contact with him.

But though the successor of the Prophet, it is plain that the Caliph can only partially take the place of the Prophet. He cannot promulgate or define doctrines or laws; he can only defend and apply those already given forth and defined; in a word, he can only administer what is accepted as being of Islam. But that does not mean that the system of Islam is unchangeably fixed; it is quite the contrary. There are far greater possibilities of addition, development, and change inherent in the Moslem people than, for example, in the Pope, even when speaking *ex cathedra*. If that people agrees that any doctrine or law is of Islam, it is of Islam. This is the principle of the Agreement, and is crystallized in a saying put into the mouth of the Prophet: "My People will never agree in an error." Further, this Agreement is not reached by any specific decisions of councils. The Moslem people, rather, develops it, as it were, unconsciously through a process of gradual crystallizing of opinion. Individuals who by study and attainments have a right to have an opinion of their own on the point in question come to have the same opinion, and the thing is accomplished. This, of course, takes place everywhere in the formation of common opinion; but in Islam it has been observed, analyzed, and established as a definitive source—and the final one—of theology and law.

So much it is necessary to state to clear away the prevalent view that the Caliph is a Pope. He is an executive and his business is to administer all the affairs of Islam, religious and secular, and to watch over the purity of its doctrine and usage. But it may well be asked how this theory can be brought into agreement with the historical facts, and, especially, with the existence of hereditary dynasties of Caliphs, such as the Abbasids. The basis for these lies in the admitted right of the Caliph to nominate his successor; so Abu Bakr nominated Umar, and the nomination was accepted. On the detailed theoretical limitations with which the canonists have surrounded this right of nomination they themselves are in dispute, and a consideration of them would lead us too far; in practice they have been ignored. Apart from the hereditary dynasties, the most conspicuous case of nomination is that which passed on the Caliphate to the Ottoman House. In 1538 the last representative of the Abbasids died in Egypt as a purely titular Caliph, and he nominated as his successor Suleiman the Great, the Sultan of the Ottoman Turks. Since then that sultan has received, at his accession, a double investiture. He is girded with the sword of Othman as the Sultan of the Ottomans, and he is chosen by the Sheikh al-Islam, the official head of all the canonist-theologians of Turkey since that office was created in 1453, as the Caliph of the Prophet, the head of the Moslem world, and symbolic representative of its theoretical unity. This action of the Sheikh al-Islam is regarded as being that of the Moslem people; he, as it were, casts a ballot for them, a far more regular and legal proceeding than the violent scenes which so often took place in the stormy times of the later Abbasids, when the mob of the capital, or even the palace guard, assumed the same function.

But it becomes plain how theoretical is that unity when we consider that it existed only for 138 years, and that since A. D. 755 the Moslem world has never acknowledged allegiance to a single ruler. Somewhat later, in the tenth century, as Stanley Lane-Poole has picturesquely put it, "the Mediterranean washed the territories of three rival Caliphs." Indeed, if we take account of more fugitive and less important secessions, we might push the period of unity back to within thirty years of the death of the Prophet. So many Moslems have felt, and their position has been put in the form of a statement from Mohammed, "My Successorship will last thirty years; thereafter will come kings and princes."

This was one—a violent—method of evading the difficulty. Another was to develop the doctrine that when there were lands of Islam so far removed from the country of the Caliph that his influence and authority could not reach to them, it was allowable for the people of those lands to choose a Caliph of their own. This was upheld by canonists of the first rank in both east and west, and especially, apparently, in the west. Spain was too far from Bagdad for the Abbasid Caliph to be there more than a name. So, in 929, Abd ar-Rahman III, the Umayyad of Cordova, took the title of Caliph with the approval of the canonists of his court who urged this theory.

It would be vain in the space possible here to work through the history of the Caliphate; but the resultant present situation can be put quite shortly. Moslems today look to, roughly, six different supreme rulers. By far the largest number render an allegiance, often dubious, to the Ottoman Sultan. On a basis of strict canon law his claim to that allegiance is shaky; for almost all Islam accepts as valid a statement put into the mouth of Mohammed that the Caliph must be of the tribe of Quraish, that of the Prophet himself. Abd al-Hamid, the late deposed Sultan, felt the force of this so strongly that the tradition in question had to be omitted in collections of traditions printed at Constantinople. The true basis of the Ottoman claim is really pragmatic. That Sultan is undoubtedly the greatest independent ruler in the Moslem world, and to him, therefore, the headship belongs by right. This basis would, of course, vanish with the vanishing or considerable curtailment of Turkey.

Afghanistan is probably the next greatest independent Moslem country. But its origin is comparatively modern, dating from about the middle of the eighteenth century, and its Amir, although in treaties he is now a "majesty," is debarred by treaty from external political relationships, and has never been associated with aspiration to the Caliphate.

The second of the six is the Invisible Imam of the Twelver sect of Shi'ites. All Shi'ites believe that Ali, the cousin and son-in-law of the Prophet and the fourth Caliph of the Sunnites, was his divinely appointed immediate successor and was wrongfully kept from his rights by his three predecessors; further, that his children had an equally divine right to succession after him. This is one of the legitimist parties in Islam, as opposed to the Sunnite or democratic party, and Shi'ism has sometimes run perilously close to deifying the line of Ali. All Persia believes that the twelfth in descent from Ali was removed by Allah from the sight of men and is now being preserved alive in retirement until his time to reappear shall come. This withdrawal happened about A. D. 874, and still, for Persians, after more than a thousand years, he is al-

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Muntazar, "the awaited one," and the real head of their government, and for them the Shah is only a *locum tenens* to keep public order and no successor of the Prophet. This Invisible Imam is believed also to control the destinies of his people by mysterious channels. Thus his headship is statedly maintained in the recent Persian Constitution, and the success of the revolution, now become so problematical, is ascribed to his influence. Another division of Shi'ites took up the fortunes of another vanished Imam, Isma'il, the seventh from Ali. These founded the Fatimid dynasty in north Africa, which has long gone its way, but has left behind it two still existing, if minor and partly secret sects. One of these is the Druzes, now in revolt and holding their Mountain against the Turkish-German control of Syria. They worship, as a divine incarnation, al-Hakim, the tenth Fatimid, who vanished in the Muqattam hills on the night of February 13, 1021 A. D., and left a mystery unread to this day. The other sect is the Isma'ilites, the Assassins of the Crusaders, who knew their head as the Old Man of the Mountain. Their present head is the Aga Khan, a peaceful Indian gentleman to whom has been granted a sovereign salute of guns by the English Government and who is well known in London drawing-rooms. There it would be hard to realize that his revenues are derived from the hereditary devotion of the Assassins, whose secret remnants in Syria still worship him as divine. He is said to have dreams of the Caliphate; so John of Leyden might have dreamed of being elected Pope.

Another legitimist party in Islam limits the right to the Caliphate to the descendants of the Prophet, who are called Sharifs, Nobles. This party differs from the one above in that it is Sunnite in theology and law, and while some sections of it ascribe hereditary saintship to the prophetic line with a power of working miracles, there is no taint among them of incarnation doctrines. Their attitude is a development of the general Moslem respect for the family of Mohammed, which enjoys, indeed, the only exception of prestige of birth in the democracy of Islam. In the Yemen there are the Zaidites, obeying an Imam of their own who traces his descent from a certain Zaid, a great-great-grandson of the Prophet. In Morocco, too, the present reigning house, which, under the French protectorate, reigns but does not rule, is of the blood of the Prophet, and has for almost four centuries claimed the title of Commander of the Faithful. To them the summons of the Ottoman Sultan to come to the assistance of their Caliph can have had no meaning. At Mecca there are at least two Sharif families which have for centuries enjoyed the highest respect from all the Moslem world. They have never ventured openly to claim the Caliphate, because they have always been under control from without and are now under that of the Ottoman Turks. But the Turkish garrison once removed, there is no question that they would elect a Caliph of their own; they may, therefore, well be entered here.

The last group of claimants of independent sovereignty may be described as puritan and nonconformist. Their descent is to be traced from primitive Moslems who seceded from the general body of Islam because of its decadence from the democratic simplicity and theological rigidity of the first generations. In consequence they are completely outside of that general body; they regard other Moslems as renegades and worse than unbelievers, and the other Moslems regard them as stranger and less of kin to themselves than even Christians or Jews. These have never recognized any fundamental need of a Caliph. A head, for them, is allowable and useful, but is not the centre of the organization of the whole state [illegible] in the rest of Islam. Their ideal, rather, goes back to the primitive tribe of the desert, with its rulers who possess only influence over a democracy of individuals. Naturally, they are not found except in out-of-the-way corners of the Moslem world. The Ibadites have had their Imams at Oman, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, since 751 A. D., and a branch from there has been long settled at Zanzibar and ruled by Sultans. They have smaller settlements, too, in southern Algeria. Somewhat akin to these primitive seceders, but of a later origin by reform, are the Wahhabites of central Arabia. Here, too, may perhaps be entered the Senussite fraternity of dervishes, for its policy has been to hold itself independent of control on the part of the governments of the countries in which it exists. For this reason it has steadily withdrawn its central organization deeper and deeper into the deserts of the Sahara, until it is now seated on the northern shore of Lake Chad. It is thus an *imperium in imperio* in the Moslem world. It avoids, too, all entangling contacts with unbelievers, and the story runs that its head formally "excommunicated" Abd al-Hamid for his too much such trafficking. This probably means that he threw off allegiance to him as Caliph.

These, then, are the elements, great and small, in the problem of the future of the Caliphate. The ill success which has attended the summons addressed to the Moslem world by the Ottoman Sultan-Caliph has shown that the principle of unity in Islam is fast yielding to that of nationality. And that means that Islam is becoming more of a simple religion and less of a political system. But the indications are that this religious unity, also, for the great mass of Sunnites at least, will tend to express itself symbolically through an individual figure. The legitimists, Shi'ite and Sunnite, and the primitive Moslems, being already provided with heads or rejecting such headship as unessential, will, of course, have nothing to do with any such attempt. Further, this will be a matter for Moslems to work out for themselves by agreement and disagreement. They will certainly, however, desire that such a head shall be independent of external entanglements, especially with non-Moslems. It is, therefore, not surprising that one of the drifts of Moslem thought is towards setting apart Mecca and Medina, with their surrounding territory, as a kind of Estates of the Church, neutral and inviolable, and towards choosing as Caliph the head of the Sharif families there. He rules there already in an ambiguous duality of control beside the Turkish military governor.* Certainly, if a purely spiritual Caliph is to reside at any one point, it should be at Mecca, the religious centre of Islam. And it would be only natural that he should be chosen from among the descendants of the founder of that faith.

Correspondence

LYNCHING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter from Mr. J. T. Winston, of Bryan, Tex., in defence of lynching stirs me to reply, for lynching can never be put down until public opinion against it is strengthened, and every voice raised against it helps that much.

Mr. Winston, it was evident, wrote under great emotion, and I have no disposition to reply to his statements in harsh language, even though in effect he advises us in the South to give up our effort to maintain under difficulties our inheritance of European civilization, and adopt, with some additions of our own, the savagery we send missionaries to preach against in Africa.

The fact that Mr. Winston was born in the North does not affect his being totally in the wrong. He has no case whatever. Doubtless men are driven to the verge of madness by the horrible nature of some crimes, but the crime of rape is by no means confined to our time or our country, and there is no way of getting around the plain truth that we Southerners are no more privileged than other people to maintain man-hunts and torturing-orgies, and yet at the same time enjoy the repute of high civilization.

If Mr. Winston will take the trouble to look up the records, he will find that not one-half of the negroes lynched are even accused of rape. It is often said that lynching is "only for the one crime," but that is the merest talk. A negro was murdered in this State within the last three years for hiding under a house. Last summer, according to the Tennessee papers, two white men were "lynched" in Arkansas for being poor and accused of stealing hogs. If we would stop talking of "lynching" and say "murder" or "kill" in plain English, it would help to clear people's ideas.

Mr. Winston thinks white men would be lynched just as promptly as negroes for the same crime. I can only say that rape and criminal assault by white men are quite well-known crimes in this State, as in many others, but while private murder in revenge sometimes occurs for this cause, I cannot recall a case of mob-murder for the crime of rape except when a negro was the criminal.

*This, between writing and printing, is now history. The Hijaz has risen under its Sharifs; Mecca, Jidda, and Taif are lost to the Turks; Medina is besieged and a hundred miles of the Hijaz railway is torn up.

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Mr. Winston justifies mob-murder by reciting the harrowing details of a murder and violation which came under his own knowledge. His emotion is natural and human, but that does not make me, for one, stagger for a moment in my conviction that lynching is murder and a peculiar disgrace to the community that condones it. Mr. Winston's personal way of putting the argument for lynching is the standard method of confuting the other side. I confess it has few terrors for me. If I allowed grief and anguish to turn me into a savage, I should be a savage all the same. It is distasteful to make declarations about one's own future conduct in case a particularly hideous possibility should occur, but facts would remain facts.

Finally, I will say this: In this matter, as in every other, fear causes cruelty. I know there is reason for fear on the part of people who live in thinly settled country districts in Texas, South Carolina, and every other Southern State. But the same reason for fear exists in some measure in every country. The great dread that is said to haunt every Southern woman on the plantations is not by any means entirely imaginary, but it is certainly partly so. A certain school of novelists and a certain kind of politician make their living off it. They make a business of painting fearful pictures of this special danger. It is money in their pockets to keep the nerves of people on edge and their imaginations inflamed with this particular fear. Of course, these writers and politicians did not create the fear, which is based on many undoubted facts, as everybody knows, but what everybody does not know is that this particular fear is often based on pure imagination. Every doctor and every experienced criminal lawyer knows that, and when women are more generally treated as intelligent as well as emotional beings, they will know it, too. If I had space I could give chapter and verse for at least two lynchings in South Carolina in the last few years which those best informed attribute to baseless fear, or at least to panicky nervousness on the part of women whom nobody had attacked at all. In fact, much of our lynching evil is simple mass-nervousness, like the somewhat similar witch-burnings of the past.

It makes no difference in my conclusions, but it may make a difference in how they are regarded, if I say that I am a Southerner born and bred, have lived in South Carolina six years, am a Democrat in politics, and the son of a Confederate soldier.

L. P. Chamberlayne.

Columbia, S. C., June 26.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. Winston, strikes a constructive note in regard to the Southern lynchings (*Nation*, June 22, p. 671). If obviating the usual crime is not the only way of stopping them, few will deny that it is the best way. For this, less reliance is to be placed on "educating" the negro out of it than on doing away with such (remote or immediate) causes as weaken the negro's sexual inhibitions. For example, *Collier's* called attention long ago to a practice of selling to negroes gin with labels subtly suggesting a content of aphrodisiacs. A man well known in educational psychology, formerly resident in the South, saw a chief factor in the easy-going tolerance with which white people regard the sexual promiscuities of the negro in his own race. Lydston has emphasized the promiscuity of white men with regard to negro women. I have also noted the opinion that modern conventions of dress put the negro in the way of undue temptation, which is, of course, quite likely to recoil upon the innocent.

F. Lyman Wells.

Waverley, Mass., June 24.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recent editorial in the *Nation* concerning lynching, and the letter entitled "Lynching Defended," lead me to write what I consider some of the causes of rape and the means to prevent that crime.

I was born and raised in the South, and for the past eight years have worked with a crew of negroes on a farm where there was no other white man for a mile or more. And so I have had more than an ordinary chance to find out just what the average negro thinks of such matters.

In most Southern communities where a majority of the population is colored, the negro who commits an offence against another negro, no matter whether it is chicken-stealing or murder, seldom receives justice. From the time an offence is committed until the negro is either acquitted or pardoned from the penitentiary, he has white friends who are willing to excuse his offence on the ground that he is a negro, and nothing is expected of a negro. And, therefore, in most Southern communities there is a class of disreputable, jail-bird negroes who have committed practically every crime against their own race, and who are hated and feared by peaceable and law-abiding colored citizens, whom they prey upon, and among whom they are known as bad negroes.

It is this class of bad negroes and bad whites who cause practically all racial trouble. It is but a step from being a bad negro to being a rape fiend. So I think that if the negro who commits a crime against his own race were to receive stern and severe punishment, the same as if the offence were against a white man, there would be less probability of his gracing the rope or stake for some crime against the white race. The negro is no higher or lower than he is made by the white race. Criminal white men make criminal negroes.

J. M. S.

Morrilton, Ark., June 25.

THE VIEW OF A NEGRO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends." To our friends who have done this for us, we grateful, but simple, negroes of this Southland must ask that you not feel us as a mass a "troublesome and insolent" people, even where in majority, lest you feel your unspeakable gifts to us of freedom and opportunity given in vain.

As a people, we implore the Almighty to wipe from among us all manner of evil-doers. Our beloved neighbors will attest that the negro is the last one in general to harbor a desire to defend from just punishment any sort of criminal. To the little black babes on the knee hums the negro mother one of the many old plantation melodies, the sentiments of which are ingrained in this people—"Yo' gwine to reap just what yo' sow."

To the negro the white man is a superman. To-day, after years of freedom, we honor the white man. To a negro, whether literate or not, the most flattering compliment that can be paid him is to assure him that he is like a white man. His conception of that race as a whole is above reproach. He waits not to outnumber his benefactors to kindle the quenched fires of savagery, nor are we, as a people, in these beloved Southlands, hoodlums, but by nature a humble people.

From where I write, the negro is in a majority; in many sections of the city the negro is in vast majority, but not through fear does he not molest the many solitary white men going their various ways among him, but welcomes them. Overlook our parks and squares, negro nurses are everywhere, even guiding the very plastic period of life of even the cream of an aristocratic stock, yet never a provoked whimper from one of these that they love so well do we hear. As domestics, our employers have but to testify to our ever-ready earnestness to be polite.

Then, kind friends, your many and great sacrifices for us simple, grateful black folks have not been made in vain. We are not remorseful towards your kinsmen of the South, for they, too, are our kind benefactors. They have given to us bread in need and many kind things are they doing that friends away have never dreamed. These kind acts are not brought before the world by short-story writers, but are daily performed by a kind-hearted, hospitable people, in whom kindness is genuine. And as the negro mammie says, "They'll understand it better bye'n bye" and allow us more straw to make the bricks for this grand structure, dedicated to freedom, our glorious American commonwealth.

Robert F. Gibson.

Savannah, Ga., June 23.

THE POLICY OF POPE BENEDICT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just received my copy of the *Nation* of March 2, in which you print a letter from S. N. Warren, jr., in reply to some remarks I made on the policy of Benedict XV in my article on the Papal Consistory of December 6 (*Nation*, February 10). Mr. Warren thinks that I betray "a want of understanding of the Pope's position, and also of the Roman question." This only means, of course, that he does not agree with my interpretation of them.

In saying that this war is not like a seventeenth or eighteenth century war of territorial aggrandizement, but a struggle between two opposing types of civilization and government, I was not aware that I was employing the favorite pro-Ally slogan. In fact, the second part of this statement I have seen strongly asserted by German publicists. A prominent German newspaper, I believe the *Kölnische Zeitung*, has lately proclaimed that Germany, Austria, and Turkey (!) will diffuse throughout the world a real civilization that will supplant the miserable imitations that emanate from London and Paris.

Mr. Warren then goes on in the same connection: "That autocracy and militarism are fighting democracy and civilization is a purely academic question, and any decision that is taken can only be regarded as a matter of opinion." This is Mr. Warren's proposition, not mine, nor do I assent to it as put in this form. But his further statement that the Pope, "with his recognized ability and understanding [recognized by whom?] is fully competent to judge impartially the merits of the

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various belligerents and to *withhold* his judgment," I find truly delightful. Why not put it that, with his recognized ability and understanding, he is competent to misjudge impartially the merits of the various belligerents, and to *express* his judgment?

I began my criticisms to which Mr. Warren objects by observing that the Pope, in advancing the suggestion that the only way of bringing about a just and lasting peace would be for all the warring Powers to make concessions, in the first place misquoted an earlier utterance of his own, and in the second place proposed a settlement of the issues of this war in a way that did small credit to his reputation for political sagacity. Mr. Warren says that "he, as Pope, is not compelled to decide on political affairs." To be sure, he is not, but that he sometimes chooses to do so is abundantly proved by the present instance. And when he does so choose he lays himself open to the criticism of all who do not acknowledge his spiritual sway. My own opinion, and that of many others, is that the method he suggested would not lead to a just and lasting peace. But the important point is that it was unanimously repudiated in all the Allied countries. And this is what I meant by saying that the allocution pronounced in this Consistory was signalized by a great political failure.

Mr. Warren is wrong in saying that "Germany's atrocities on (*sic*) the clergy in Belgium, with the abuse of the churches," called forth the Pope's reprehension in letters to Cardinals Hartmann and Mercier. No letter to Cardinal Hartmann was written, or at least published, on this subject. The Pope did indeed send two letters of condolence to Cardinal Mercier, but in neither of them was there a word of condemnation for the Germans. The only public utterance made by the Vatican in this sense was in the letter addressed by the Secretary of State, Cardinal Gasparri, to Dr. Van Heuvel, the Belgian Minister to the Holy See, to which I allude in my letter to the *Nation* of October 14, 1915 (Vol. 101, p. 456), where it is said that after the shooting of the Belgian priests, the destruction of Louvain, and similar barbarities, the Roman See had solemnly protested.

Mr. Warren also brings up Pope Benedict's complaint about the "unreliability" (insecurity?) of his position. On this general question I expressed my opinion in the *Nation* of January 7, 1915 (Vol. 100, p. 10), as follows: "The statement that the Holy See is now in an equivocal and abnormal position, against which Catholics the world over have not ceased to protest, and that its liberties have been (somewhat) compromised and its freedom of action (somewhat) curtailed, is only the plain truth." What I took exception to in the Pope's allocution was his assertion that his disabilities had been increased by the existing state of war, in support of whch he made, of course unwittingly, a false statement which the Italian Government corrected in an official communication. I did not criticise him for recalling his own and his predecessor's lamentations about the seizure of the Papal territories and the abolition of the temporal power, except by implying that in this case it was useless and unwise. In view of the fact that, at the time Pope Pius IX's dominions were taken from him, his was the oldest temporal sovereignty in Europe, no reasonable person expects his successors to be satisfied with the existing order, or to cease protesting from time to time. How much heed the world at large need give to his protests is quite another question.

Now that I am on the subject, I may add that the allocution seems to have had one salutary effect, namely, that since the discussions to which it immediately gave rise nobody in the Allied countries, so far as I have heard or read, has expressed the slightest concern as to what the Pope thinks about the moral and political issues involved in the present war. Perhaps one of its results will be to make Rome even more a city, as Henry James wrote of it in 1872, "of abortive councils and unheeded anathemas."

HOMER EDMISTON.

Milan, Italy, June 5.

THE MALONE SOCIETY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The roll of membership of the Malone Society, which has for some time been limited, is now reopened, in view of the loss of members which may be looked for when the Society resumes work after the war. The annual subscription is £1 1s., and new members may subscribe for any or all of the back years (1907-1913, 1914 being treated as the current year). The publications consist generally each year of five reprints of Tudor plays and a part of *Collections, i. e.,* notes, documents, etc., illustrative of the Tudor stage.

Applications for membership should be made to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. Arundell Esdaile, British Museum, London, W. C.

A. ESDAILE.

London, Eng., June 17.

THE FRENCH EXAMPLE IN EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Would it not be well at this moment to ask in the columns of the *Nation* whether there are not, among our thinkers and investigators, some who might find it possible to go to France and make a careful study of the French educational system, with the purpose of benefiting our methods of education in America, through intelligent reform? That our system needs reshaping, that our ideas and ideals need to be clarified, few who are busy in educational work can doubt. For decades in the past we have been overwhelmingly influenced in these matters by Germany. Undoubted benefit would result from an attempt to come into closer contact in matters of training and of method with a nation so different from the German, a nation whose culture has done more than that of any other to determine the culture of the world.

Here in America confusion of mind attends the efforts of educators in the college world and in the secondary schools as to right aims and methods. To the intellectual dilemma resulting from the great multiplication of subjects of study during recent years, partly through the expansion of scientific work, France, with her sense of proportion, her love of clear thinking, her instinct for seizing the essential, could lend us aid such as no other country could give. With us, college curriculums and those of secondary schools are being swamped by multiplication of electives. Ardent young teachers are insisting on carrying college work into the preparatory years. College professors, especially those holding German doctors' degrees, have for many years been pushing into undergraduate work parts of the exhaustive and meticulous specialized study of the university. From these bewildering opportunities, year by year, thousands of illiterate young emerge with diplomas in their hands, though it must in justice be added that thousands emerge fairly well equipped, having proved wiser than their elders in regard to what should be required of them.

The college and the secondary school, here in America, are much at sea as to what they stand for. The time has come when the province of each should be more clearly defined. Inheriting an English system of humanistic training, largely classical, which originally blundered along towards fairly good results in the matter of equipment of the student, our colleges have, through the enormous increase of subjects, the introduction of technical and vocational pursuits, the reaching out towards the kindergarten, on the one hand, and the university, on the other, become huge and unwieldy machines which threaten to be wholly unmanageable. Acquaintance with the French system might give us some insight into the essential, some perception of the limits of the possible. France gives admirable technical training. What relation does this bear to the humanistic education of the young student? France gives thorough drill to her young sons in the first years of their school life. What does she require of them in this discipline which proves so much more effective than our own? What study of language and of literature is considered necessary to save them from illiteracy? What observation work is prescribed? What direct training in methods of thought? Again, France does thorough and scholarly university work. Is this not more clearly differentiated than it is here from the basic instruction that should be obtained in undergraduate years?

At the beginning of our educational career, when the American republic was young, French ideas were followed in the system, admirable in its simplicity and its centralization, of the State of New York, with its close relation of college and secondary schools under one control, coöperating, and supplementing each other. It is a pity that this plan was not extended to other States, and adhered to more closely, at least until it had had fair trial. Something of it survives in the Board of Regents, which, I was recently told by an educator, is successful in achieving greater uniformity of results than is commonly the case in grammar school and high school. There is little doubt that our system of instruction would have proved more shapely and more aware of its own aims if we had kept, in past years, in closer contact with our sister republic.

We are happily indebted to France in many ways, both for the specific services she has rendered to this country and for the large service she has rendered the world. Would it not be well to increase our national indebtedness in a way that might be gratifying to France and that certainly would benefit us, by learning something of that admirable system of education that leads to lucidity of thought and intellectual self-mastery; by ceasing to sit, in matters academic, at the feet of Germany, who has, perhaps, up to this present, taught us as much as it is well for us to learn? France, at this great moment, grows daily and hourly more great. Any way in which we can draw near her can hardly help giving us a share in her spiritual exaltation and intellectual clear-sightedness.

MARGARET P. SHERWOOD.

Wellesley, Mass., May 5.

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Literature

JUNKERISM AND ECONOMIC CONQUEST.

The Ruling Caste and Frenzied Trade in Germany. By Maurice Millioud. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $1.25 net.

This small book is one of the most interesting works yet produced regarding the European war. The author is a professor of sociology in the University of Lausanne, and writes avowedly as a neutral. It is not quite clear whether he started with a bias, or whether he acquired one as a result of his investigations, but it is unmistakable that he is here holding the German people up to reprobation.

He does not regard them, in contradistinction to the ruling class, with the leniency that has been so frequently shown them in neutral quarters. It is not easy, he declares, to see how a feudal military system can dominate in a huge empire in which manufacture, commerce, trading in all its branches, have become the chief preoccupation of seventy million people. "It is impossible to believe that the Germans have been rushed—in spite of themselves—into a war of which they disapprove." The nation's approval of the adventure entered upon by the governing class is clear enough to make one anxious to arrive at an explanation of it.

Professor Millioud, in short, finds that the capitalist class was the author of, and is to be blamed for, the war, the capitalist class being synonymous with the middle class. One cannot but exclude the supposition of an occasion seized at hazard by some one person, some freak on the part of the chief of the state. Germany was ready. She had for a long time seen war coming. More than once, notably at the time of Tangier and Agadir, she had threatened. A strong and noisy party clamored for war. Whence came its influence and whose interests was it working?

These questions are answered by an appeal to history. The internal history of Germany since 1871, even since 1866, is to be understood by observing the relations existing between two classes, now friendly, now hostile; by the opposition or the union of their forces, and not by any struggle between the ruling class and the masses of the people. Briefly, the power of Germany is the outcome of a reconciliation of the Junker and industrial forces. The middle class has from time to time sulkily opposed votes of credit for the army, but has always passed them. Militarism, which is the mainstay of the aristocracy, has been placed at the disposal of the ambitious capitalist through the prestige of armed force, by raising ambitions, and by inspiring fear; more than once by nothing short of intimidation the army has become the means of achieving economic victory. Further combinations, other mutual understandings, have been brought about which have made modern Germany not only unlike other nations, but unique. In her we have an instance of the psychology of the crowd which is of greatest interest. In her we note the blending of aristocratic and military leanings with those of commerce and plutocracy; acquiescence in being police-controlled; willingness to live by the rules of "Kulturstaat," though retaining individual initiative and the freedom of the capitalist trader; methodical conduct of business combined with a taste for speculation; all that goes to the making of German Imperialism as distinct from any other, by reason that to a definite objective, namely, economic conquest, are added less defined ones, those in which the aristocratic class delights, such as love of lording it over others, love of display and of demonstrating to itself its superiority. Always to be remembered is the fact that economic conquest was an urgent necessity for Germany—she had become one vast manufacturing town and she no longer fed herself. Professor Millioud does not exclude the working class from his characterization. Is the German working class at war in spite of itself? he asks. No; as soon as war was declared it was all for war, it rejoiced in it, and threw itself into it heart and soul.

Sir Frederick Pollock, who contributes an introduction to the present work, says that some readers may think that Professor Millioud has rated the economical elements of the problem too high, and the political and personal ones too low; but as for himself, he thinks that the line of argument here presented is sound on its own footing, and that criticism will hardly be profitable without fuller information than can be expected for some time. Many who have studied German economic history, and particularly many who have studied it at first hand during the past generation, will inevitably be impressed by Professor Millioud's facts and conclusions. To some the surprising thing is not to be found in what the author of this work says, but in the fact that he should be practically the first to say it in the clear and precise terms of the economic thinker.

Germany has set Europe on fire, and our author asks why. There are four reasons, none of which precludes the others, none of which is altogether wrong in itself; yet each only in part explains what has taken place. The first is one given by the Germans themselves, namely, that they are the victims of a plot, that they were taken by surprise, and only struck in self-defence. The second is the accepted explanation in all foreign countries, that Germany is under the influence of a distorted political philosophy—war is the natural proof of might, victory is a holy thing, science, history, and God's loving kindness have assured the Germans world dominion. The third explanation is that the other Powers were strangling Germany; she had to have air and freedom—freedom of the sea, freedom in Africa and Asia. The fourth is the economic theory. To hope to establish dominion over all other countries and to maintain such dominion would be a hopeless task, a ruinous one, if it were capable of achievement. But to use the army for the profit of industry and trade, in other words, to crush competition and destroy financial resources of two or even three rival Powers, to win European markets by a rapid military success, to achieve lasting prosperity for manufacturers, indeed, for all German producers—is not that the natural outcome, under present-day conditions, of the work of William I and Prince Bismarck? If so, it would explain much, if one did not bear in mind a very important consideration, namely, that war, which could be a quite good financial operation in 1870, has become less good a one since then, a fact which could not have escaped the Kaiser's advisers.

Obviously, there is still something we do not know. Highly prosperous, with no danger threatening, a people does not risk its all with the blind fury which it is ours to witness. No, everything points to the fact that the war was a step taken in despair, a stroke carefully planned; threatened, to be sure, several times before, but always threatened and then deferred; yet at last hurriedly rushed into in 1914, as if for fear that the opportunity might be missed. Was it a gambler's throw? The idea is hardly conceivable. Was it, perchance, that all was not well; that desperate trouble threatening the very life of the nation was foreseen; that Germany rushed into war to forestall it?

What could the trouble be? Professor Millioud's answer to this question is certainly as suggestive as anything that has appeared in print since August 1, 1914. If what he says is not altogether conclusive, it nevertheless heightens the suspicions entertained for some years past by a not inconsiderable number of persons trading with, or in competition with, the German Empire. The Germans have, of deliberate purpose, set themselves systematically and hugely to exceed the requirements of their home market. They have set themselves to flood the markets of the world, and have done it with their eyes open. Germany was faced with the necessity of establishing herself abroad, either by the creation of colonial outlets, or by driving other nations out of markets which they had created. Her colonial ventures were not prompted by excess population, for she has had to import labor every year; their object has been to obtain for her sources of corn and mineral production, and outlets for her finished manufactures. Her methods have been personal and economic penetration, dumping, long credits, and Government assistance. Professor Millioud's discussion of these methods inevitably leads him to a discussion of German banking. Here we are on exceedingly interesting ground. The part played by the German banks in the Emperor's "Weltpolitik" is too great, too intimate, too delicate to admit of extended treatment in a review of this length. We can recall no one who has handled this subject with such deftness and insight as the author of the present work.

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Professor Millioud's real point is that, despite her gigantic effort in the direction of trade conquest, Germany eventually found herself the under dog. Though she has given way in no foreign market, her progress has been relatively slower than that of England, as our author shows statistically. Evidently, the formation of the Balkan League, following the successful activities of England in the Persian Gulf, her agreement with Russia in the matter of Persia, and the threat of a trans-Persia railway running parallel with the Bagdad-Bussrah line, emphasized the fact to Germany that she must pull herself together. The Imperial dream had been to put Germany in a position to compensate for any slackening or stoppage of Germany's activities on markets outside Europe, should such occur, by the acquisition of vast outlets in nearer Asia, from Konia to Bagdad, from Bagdad to Bussrah and the Persian Gulf.

Germany said she was fighting for very existence, and she spoke the truth, declares Professor Millioud. Her manufacturers, financiers, and statesmen had dragged her so deeply and by such methods into a war of economic conquest that she could not withdraw. The methods employed were at last working against her. Must she await the inevitable crash, the stoppage of trade, the downfall of her credit, the misery which must overwhelm her people, and the fury which would perhaps possess them in consequence? Would not war be preferable?

CURRENT FICTION.

The Night Cometh. By Paul Bourget. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Paul Bourget's tale of the war makes no attempt to astonish the imagination or to rack the sensibilities in the Russian fashion by vast impressionistic pictures of the commotion, anguish, and physical horrors of a nation passing through the fire to Moloch. That men are intrenching and fighting and dying in vast indiscriminated masses, that no single life is of much consequence, that no man's personal feelings or behavior are of great significance in this titanic conflict —these are the oppressive ideas that the newspapers bring home to us, these are the illusions that one entertains who watches the battles from afar off.

M. Bourget does not succumb to the obvious aspects of his subject. He is not intoxicated by the tumult and the shouting. He studies the effect of the ordeal upon a small group of selected individuals; and he is impressive because he leaves one with a conviction that it is not the ordeal, but the individual's behavior in it, that tremendously matters. War, as he treats it, is a touchstone of the spirit. He applies it in this case to three principal characters: a distinguished surgeon in charge of a military hospital, his young wife who devotes herself to the wounded, and her lover who is at the front. The surgeon, who is, with a certain symbolical suggestiveness, afflicted with cancer, is the embodiment of the scientific spirit and the materialistic philosophy of the nineteenth century. He spends the intense energy of his nature upon his profession, upon his wife, and upon the lavish and exotic decoration of his home. The lover is a type of the old chivalric Catholicism. The wife has her philosophy from her husband, and at the outset of the story believes that her affections are permanently bound up in him.

The artfully simple plot deepens under reflection into a parable. For it is hardly possible to avoid identifying the wife's subsequent development with M. Bourget's conception of the development of the French people in the stress of the present war. In the passion of love and the fiercer passion of death she discovers the bitterness, the harshness, the selfishness, and, in fine, the inadequacy of the scientific creed by which her husband lives, and which sufficed her in the days of peace. She cannot live by it, and she will not die by it. In this same crisis she sees bravery in battle, honor in love, fortitude in suffering, and a sweet and manly resignation in death drawn by her lover from the abandoned wells of religious faith. The stoical and the Christian creeds she has seen subjected to the kind of test that men of science themselves prescribe. The former does not stand the supreme strains of life. The latter she has verified in her spiritual experience; it fits the facts of the spirit. It transforms obedience into loyalty and duty into devotion. It contains the "little more" which outweighs all the rest.

The argument is not new, but it is not antiquated. It is illustrated in M. Bourget's book with an appealing reserve of sentiment and with sober sincerity.

Stamboul Nights. By H. G. Dwight. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

"What the fifteen-cent magazines do not want" might be a suitable honorific sub-title to this collection of stories. Looking for the new thing in fiction has so beset us that there is a delightful illusion of newness shed by these stories built on the classic lines so hard to find outside the anthologies. Action and plot, the *clichés* of the present-day magazine editor, are here without the unintelligent, bewildering emphasis that weights the city news-stands. There is no inane bundle of technical tricks: incident and characterization are natural and unforced. Balzac's remark that "everything happens" finds no better atmosphere than the romantic pseudo-Orientalism of Stamboul. There East and West have met for so long that neither East nor West remains: Stamboul is *sui generis*. Thus Mr. Dwight's quiet workmanship is more than revelatory; it is interpretative. In some of the stories he tells is here and there a quite uncanny gift for verisimilitude. We have recognized more than one authentic incident in a setting it has been Mr. Dwight's power to recreate. His wealth of observation of Turkish character and custom is based on a profound knowledge of a race whose picturesque characteristics are so richly anachronistic, so flavored of two ancient civilizations, that "Stamboul Nights" should make more than a cursory appeal to readers of fiction at this critical juncture of Turkish destiny. Nothing could be more delightfully characteristic than "The Leopard of the Sea," "The House of the Giraffe," or "For the Faith." Mr. Dwight has the field to himself: he may become the Conrad of Constantinople and the Levant. We hope to see him use this rich material for a novel.

The Spinster. By Sarah N. Cleghorn. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

When the story of the twentieth century comes to be written, the place of the spinster in modern life will be defined and her contribution to civilization acknowledged, at the same time, probably, that a new name will be coined for her—one hopes that it will not be "feminist"! The critic who undertakes that task will find his material in books like this sober, painstaking portrait of Miss Cleghorn's. Ellen Graham was an "old maid" from childhood, with the curious reserves and hardnesses and the inconveniently outspoken passion for social justice that make such girls rather thorny members of a comfortable family. Many a middle-aged woman of to-day will see her own development mirrored in Ellen's struggle to find herself and her place in the world, a struggle all the more interesting because entirely devoid of those upheavals and abnormalities of the *femme incomprise de nos jours* with which we have become wearily familiar. Nothing is more striking about the book than the writer's evident desire to tell the reticent and exact and humorous truth about the people of Tory Hill, sketched so lightly and yet with such unerring accuracy; about the friends—rather shadowy, most of these, it must be confessed—of Ellen's year at Radcliffe; about Franklin Tallant, the one man in the spinster's life, and all the rest of the people who stimulated and misunderstood and helped and hindered this very real and very convincing woman.

A Cathedral Singer. By James Lane Allen. New York: The Century Co.

In his latest production Mr. Allen has expanded what is essentially a short story into a thin book. He relates one of those bitter ironies of fate whereby an impoverished and adoring mother is robbed of her tender son, the wonderful promise of whose voice has just made his future certain. Skilful as the author is in many passages of the narrative, he does not sufficiently centre the reader's interest. Upon the mother he pours a wealth of sentiment, hinting at the opulence and refinement of her past, inducting her as a model with many a sigh of pity into an atelier on One Hundred and Tenth Street in New York city, and revealing her again in the humble attic home below Morningside Park. But equally prominent is the Cathedral of St. John the Divine above the slope from her home, to enshrine which

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in a luminous halo of human suffering seems a thought too consciously his purpose. There is something too much also of the melancholy cadence to the style and the pathetic repetition of phrase. One rises from the perusal less impressed than the author hoped with the feeling that the cathedral possesses significance too deep for tears.

QUEEN VICTORIA.

The Widowhood of Queen Victoria. By Clare Jerrold. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.75 net.

This completes a critical study of Victoria's life and character of which the earlier volumes appeared under the titles, "The Early Court of Queen Victoria" and "The Married Life of Queen Victoria." It confirms the impression given in those narratives of a woman of narrow and stubborn mind, devoted to her family and to the idea of royalty rather than to her people. It denies to her either breadth of view or magnanimity of purpose. It shows her both grasping and stingy, amassing great wealth out of her savings, and continually demanding new grants for her children, and even her grandchildren. It shows her an egotist and a sentimentalist, clinging to the old-fashioned notion of the inherent feebleness of females, and calling herself "a poor helpless woman," yet complacently appropriating the rights and emoluments of kingship—and making very little of its duties. And the facts here recorded seem to afford a fair basis for the writer's speculation that "her great affection for all things Teutonic, her unwavering determination to work for a strong Prussia and a united Germany, may not have been without their effect on the German mind when the war lords were laying their plans for the conquest of Europe."

In this volume the earlier evidence is confirmed as to Victoria's feminine dependence upon the affectionate devotion of some member of the other sex. The sequence of her relations in this kind is a strange one. The most interesting portions of "The Court of Queen Victoria" had to do with the affectionate intimacy between the young Queen and Lord Melbourne. Her letters and the testimony of contemporaries show her hanging upon the elderly but still charming statesman and man of the world with the sentimental unction of a schoolgirl for an adored master. Plainly, he was the man in the world for her at the moment. She is never weary of expressing her reliance upon him, her innocent feminine surrender to his masculinity. As he had the keenest sense of humor and she had none whatever, the situation could not have lacked its quaint aspect, for him. But it is clear that he had a real affection for her, as well as a strong sense of political duty towards the child who so seriously masqueraded in the trappings of royalty. Did his summary supplanting cause him a moment of smiling chagrin? No sooner does her Albert dawn upon her, with his rosy face of youth, than the young thing's loyalty transfers itself, without an effort. To her Consort, while he lived, she made obeisance as woman, though as Queen she was careful never to make the fatal step of yielding actual precedence. And after his death she bored the world for years with the story of his virtues and her grief. She showed little enough interest in improving the estate of the common people, even when they happened to be directly under her nose, as at the notoriously malodorous Windsor. She could turn her back on Parliament and on England for the sake of childish junketings with her favored Scots at Balmoral. But there was never anything that could daunt the prospect of a new Albert memorial—at England's expense. It was as an Albertian, doubtless, that Queen Victoria gave her feminine allegiance to the third intimate: John Brown the dour, blunt Scotsman, nominally her servant, but for thirty-odd years her constant attendant, confidant, and adviser. During those many years which constituted Albert Edward's titular infancy, she showed him no evidences of affection as a mother or of confidence as a friend. Nor was there any other person of the rank upon which, at moments, she laid so preposterous a stress, to whom she gave, during all that period, the same kind of confidence. The truth seems to be that by a secret though technically blameless trick of sex this crude Scotch peasant happened to get the domination of her own crude peasant nature. While he lived, he was indispensable; when he died, his royal mistress was not to be consoled. More memorials!

As for her Teutonic obsession, the most "timely" theme developed in this record, a good deal of evidence is adduced. Her devotion to the interests of Germany, and especially of Prussia, she regarded as a sacred legacy: "whenever she would mention 'a strong Prussia,' she would add a pious reference to the departed Albert." As it happened, the Prince Consort's officiousness in Prussian affairs had made England unpopular. Under Bismarck, the Prussian disaffection with England increased. But even Victoria's dislike for Bismarck could not deprive her of her legacy. She would countenance no means of withstanding the aggression of Prussia against the other German states: "She consulted, not the safety of Europe or of England, not the balance of European power, then or in the future, but what she knew to have been the ideals of the Prince Consort." Therefore, when Bismarck bluntly explained to England, through Disraeli, his final design, there was no protest. Two months before the beginning of his coup he said: "When I take over the Prussian Government, my first care will be to reorganize the army, with or without the Landtag. As soon as the army is sufficiently strong I shall seize a pretext to declare war on Austria, dissolve the Diet, reduce the small states, and give Germany national unity under Prussia." Bismarck's designs were not interfered with by Victorian England. An interesting item, in the light of present history, is Disraeli's remark of that period: "If there is a cordial alliance between England and France, war is most difficult; but if there is a thorough understanding between England, France, and Russia, war is impossible."

THE TOTEM AND SOCIETY.

The Elementary Forms of the Religious Life. By Emile Durkheim. Translated from the French by Joseph Ward Swain. New York: The Macmillan Co. $4 net.

It was in 1912 that "Les Formes élémentaires de la vie religieuse" appeared; and English readers are fortunate that not more than four years were allowed to elapse before the publication of an English edition. Mr. Swain's translation is hardly brilliant, and in a very few cases his understanding of the French and his choice of English words are not all that could be desired. But his sentences are invariably clear and his version is faithful to the original.

The book is probably the most important contribution to the study of primitive religions that this century has as yet produced. After a careful analysis and critique of the animistic and naturalistic hypotheses, the author passes to an exposition of totemistic beliefs and rites in the light of his own sociology. The major part of the book is devoted to this elaborate exposition and analysis. For his facts Durkheim is dependent chiefly upon Spencer and Gillen and upon Strehlow—though he has practically exhausted the literature of his subject and draws liberally upon all the more important investigators. But the arrangement and interpretation of the facts are his own, and, whether one agrees with him or not, no one can deny that his methods and conclusions are both original and brilliant.

The essential thing about religion, according to Durkheim, is the distinction which it makes between the sacred and the profane. "Sacred things are those which the interdictions (of society) protect and isolate; profane things, those to which these interdictions are applied and which must remain at a distance from the first. Religious beliefs are the representations which express the nature of the sacred things and the relations which they sustain, either with each other or with profane things. Finally, rites are the rules of conduct which prescribe how a man should comport himself in the presence of these sacred objects." "A religion is a unified system of beliefs and practices relative to sacred things, that is to say, things set apart and forbidden—beliefs and practices which unite into one single moral community called a church all those who adhere to them."

If we would find the essential elements of religion in their most obvious form, the author argues, we must seek it in the most primitive religion discoverable; and this

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most primitive religion will be that belonging to the most primitive societies known. Now, the societies most simple in structure known to sociology are the tribes of central and northern Australia. For this and other reasons Durkheim concludes that the religion of these tribes is the most primitive of all religions; and he is the more convinced of this because he has been able, as he believes, to find in their religion the germs of all the higher forms. This primitive religion from which all other religions have developed is, of course, totemism. A possible attack upon his position from those who see the earliest form of religion in primitive man's concept of *mana*—the impersonal power—Durkheim avoids by incorporating *mana* into totemism as an essential part of it. Mana, in fact, is interpreted as the totemic force—the principle or "god" of which the totem is the symbol. But the totem is not only the symbol of this mysterious force; it is the symbol of the social group as well. "It is its flag; it is the sign by which each clan distinguishes itself from the others, the visible mark of its personality, a mark borne by everything which is a part of the clan under any title whatsoever, men, beasts, or things. So, if it is at once the symbol of the god and of the society, is that not because the god and the society are only one? The god of the clan, the totemic principle, can therefore be nothing else than the clan itself, personified and represented to the imagination under the visible form of the animal or vegetable which serves as the totem." Here we are at the very heart of Durkheim's thesis: society and the god of all historical religions are really identical. "It is unquestionable that a society has all that is necessary to arouse the sensation of the divine in minds, merely by the power that it has over them; for to its members it is what a god is to his worshippers. In fact, a god is, first of all, a being whom men think of as superior to themselves, and upon whom they feel that they depend. . . . Now, society also gives us the sensation of a perpetual dependence." And not only are we physically dependent upon it; it exerts upon us a moral constraint which no merely physical power could ever make us feel, and thus both morally and physically acts upon the individual as the god is always pictured as doing. Durkheim argues the point at length, and very brilliantly, with great force of illustration and originality of conception. The masses of facts that have been piled up by investigators in Australia and from our own West are worked over so as to yield results at which those who reported them would never have guessed, and in such fashion as to throw unexpected light on many a hitherto dark place in various higher stages of religion.

Yet brilliant as is Durkheim's argument concerning the original form and the essential nature of religion, it can hardly be called conclusive. A good deal may still be said for Animism, and particularly for Naturalism. In fact, most of Durkheim's facts might be taken out of the very clever arrangement he has devised for them, in which they point so clearly towards a totemistic origin of nearly everything, and be rearranged so as to lead to an animistic and naturalistic conclusion. As a fact, indeed, Spencer and Gillen, the great authorities on Australian matters, lean decidedly towards an animistic interpretation. Very much more evidence will have to be produced before it can be made even probable that totemism is the primitive form of all religions. Why, indeed, must all religions have had the same origin? The conditions in which men have lived in various parts of the world have been so varied that a plurality of origins for religion would, on the face of it, seem not at all improbable. To insist that all began in one way smacks a little of the dogmatic monism from which philosophy has suffered so long, and from which it is beginning to declare its independence.

Finally, it is very questionable whether we can ever get at all that is essential in religion by confining our study to its sociological expressions and to its most primitive forms. In early tribal societies we shall indeed find most easily its simplest elements; but it may well be that in its later developments there are truly essential elements which are far from simple. Or must we presuppose, without investigation, that nothing of fundamental importance has been added to religion in times subsequent to the simplest and lowest? It may perhaps be shown—if further evidence be forthcoming—that for the Arunta and the Ojibway "the reality which religious thought expresses is society." But a good deal more must still be done to show that what is true for the Arunta must therefore also be true for the Buddhist and the Christian. The truth is, Durkheim's definition is too narrow except for the practical purposes of sociology. Religion as a psychical fact of modern life has significant aspects which can never be evolved out of any manipulation of the sacred and the profane.

COLUMBIAN ESSAYS.

Shaksperian Studies. By Members of the Department of English and Comparative Literature in Columbia University. Edited by Brander Matthews and Ashley Horace Thorndike. New York: Columbia University Press.

This substantial volume of essays does honor to Columbia University, and especially to the department by which it has been issued. It is not likely to be surpassed by any publication of a critical nature which the tercentenary of Shakespeare's death may call forth. For many years past the department has been identified with the fruitful investigation of Elizabethan stage-history and of other matters that pertain to the evolution of the Elizabethan drama. The present volume leaves aside technical questions of the theatres of the period, but otherwise its scope is even wider than might have been expected from the previous productions of the department concerned. For instance, we have an excellent character-study in Professor Cunliffe's article on Henry V as prince and king, an interpretation of "Romeo and Juliet" from the pen of Professor Erskine which goes to the heart of Shakespeare's great love-tragedy, and a well-considered defence by Professor Wright of the poet's alleged inconsistency in characterization.

Of the eighteen essays that make up the collection there are several which would individually furnish profitable material for a review. We shall have to content ourselves in this place, however, with an endeavor to indicate the variety which is offered by the volume, and to give a few words to some of the most noteworthy among these studies.

The first article, by Prof. Brander Matthews, is an extremely suggestive one on the illumination of Shakespeare's text which is often supplied by stage tradition—the interpretation of Shakespearean characters by great actors of the past. Conspicuous instances, cited by Professor Matthews, are Miss Ada Rehan's rendering of Portia's speech on mercy, which she declaimed not as a set oration, but as a personal appeal, addressing herself directly to Shylock, "evidently inspired by the hope that her plea might soften his heart and watching eagerly to discover if it did," and Ludwig Barnay's (of the Meiningen company) management of the scene in which Mark Antony delivers the funeral oration over Cæsar's body. When he began, the crowd of citizens was "hopelessly indifferent, broken into little groups, talking over the speech of Brutus." At first the actor was timorous in his manner and deprecatory in his praise of Cæsar. At the end of every sentence he would pause, "and his glance searched for one little knot of men after another who might be attracted by the appeal of his voice and his eye. In time the murmur was vanquished, and the throng slowly compacted itself about the rostrum, although there were still a few in the fringes of the crowd who have not been taken captive." Making stealthy progress in the sympathies of his audience by these arts until he can sway them at his will, he at length throws aside the mask of timidity and incites them to fury. Very plausible, too, is Augustin Daly's interpretation of Jaques as "a humorist, recognized as such by all his comrades—a humorist who affects to be a satirist and who is not to be taken too seriously"; and the speech on the seven ages of man, according to this view, is an extemporization to which the speaker is led on by the tolerant and amused attitude of his fellows towards him. However the literary critic may rate these stage interpretations, there can be no doubt that a work which should accomplish for Shakespeare's chief plays what Regnier's edition has done for "Tartuffe" would be one of intense interest; for a record of the best stage traditions accompanying the text would, of course, vivify the dialogue in the one case as much as in the other.

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Timely, in view of the present tercentenary celebration, is Prof. W. T. Brewster's survey of the attempts at a restoration of Shakespeare's personality from Coleridge down to the present day—a pleasant but unprofitable exercise, indeed, if profit is to be measured by assured results! Too often, as in the case of Coleridge's and the late Professor Dowden's analyses, the writer lifts the veil that covers his own personality rather than that of his subject. It is wisest, perhaps, to adopt Sir Walter Raleigh's point of view and endeavor merely to reconstruct Shakespeare's mind at work, without considering the other aspects of the man. At any rate, Professor Brewster inclines most of all to this critic's "restoration." When he remarks at the end, however, that although Shakespeare was a supreme poet, "it does not follow that he was a particularly interesting man," we have a right to demur. What instance among the supreme figures in the history of literature can Professor Brewster cite in support of this paradoxical statement?

The article entitled "Shakespeare as a Debtor" raises the old question of the dramatist's originality. He not only borrowed his plots, but he was determined in the choice of these plots purely by the fashion of the season; many of his leading characters were simply popular stage-types of the time; he is responsible for no new departure in the development of the Elizabethan drama; he simply followed in the wake of lesser men. These are some of the points of Shakespearean criticism that have been urged with increasing frequency of recent years, and especially on this side of the ocean. There is, of course, a certain amount of truth in such criticisms, but their importance, it strikes us—and, in the main, this seems to be Professor Thorndike's view—has been greatly exaggerated. Grant that "Hamlet" is a revenge play, and that several plays of this character had been produced in the later years of the sixteenth century. After all, they were very few in comparison with the total number of plays that appeared during these years, and there is accordingly something significant in Shakespeare's selection of just this particular story. In any event, the qualities that make "Hamlet" great are not borrowed. When one reads a study of the relation of "Hamlet" to the earlier revenge plays, the reverse may seem true; but turn, say, to "The Spanish Tragedy" and then to "Hamlet," and the impression is instantly corrected. Even more questionable than Professor Thorndike allows is his well-known thesis that in the last period—the period of the so-called "romances"—Shakespeare was following the lead of Beaumont and Fletcher. Apart from other considerations, as Professor Gayley has pointed out, the essential features of these "romances" are all found in "Pericles," which was surely written before "Philaster," the play which is supposed to have given a new direction to Shakespeare's genius. Professor Thorndike, however, takes a thoroughly sane view of this question of the dramatist's borrowings. As he remarks, its chief interest lies in the fact that it illustrates the processes of literature in the making.

"The Love-Story in 'Troilus and Cressida,'" by W. W. Lawrence, contributes still further to the clearing up of the mystery which once seemed to surround Shakespeare's treatment of the Trojan story in this play. Professor Tatlock had already proved that his attitude towards the Greek heroes, in the main, merely perpetuated the tradition which had been rendered familiar to Englishmen by Caxton's "Recuyell"; similarly, Professor Lawrence traces now the degradation which Cressida's character had undergone since Chaucer in the works of Henryson and others, so that it only remained for Shakespeare to give dramatic life to the popular conceptions of herself and of her uncle, who plays so unsavory a rôle in her story.

We have already referred to the excellent papers of Professor Erskine and Professor Cunliffe, which are among the best things that Shakespearean criticism has to show on their respective subjects. In conclusion, we wish to call attention to two interesting contributions to the history of Shakespeare in America—namely, Professor Odell's "'A Midsummer Night's Dream' on the New York Stage" and Professor Steeves's "American Editors of Shakspere."

Notes

Henry Holt & Company announce for publication next month "Creative Intelligence," by John Dewey; "Joseph Conrad," by Hugh Walpole, and "Thomas Hardy," by Harold Child, the last two being the fifth and sixth volumes in the series, Writers of the Day.

A. C. McClurg & Company announce for early publication a biography of Mrs. Ella Flagg Young.

The American Bookplate Society announces the publication of a volume dealing with the bookplates by the late George W. Eve, written and compiled by George Heath Viner.

"The Book of Sorrow," an anthology by Capt. Andrew Macphail, will be issued shortly by the Oxford University Press.

"Friends of France," by various authors, and "The Unspeakable Perk," by Samuel Hopkins Adams, will be published this month by Houghton Mifflin Company.

"Questions of War and Peace," by Professor Hobhouse, and "National Power and Prosperity," by Conrad Gill, are among the publications recently announced by T. Fisher Unwin, of London.

The following volumes are announced for publication during August by Frederick A. Stokes Co.: "The Little Hunchback Zia," by Frances H. Burnett; "Witte Arrives," by Elias Tobenkin; "Waitful Watching," by James L. Ford; "The Civilization of the Ancient Egyptians," by A. Bothwell Gosse; "The Austrian Court from Within," by Princess Catherine Radziwill; "Cotton as a World Power," by James A. B. Scherer; "Evolution," by J. A. S. Watson.

From old newspapers, the journals of travellers, the published reminiscences of early settlers, and local archives, Charles W. Dahlinger has compiled an interesting and authentic sketch of "Pittsburgh: Its Early Social Life" (Putnam; $1.25 net). The period covered is from 1770 to the end of the War of 1812—community life in Pittsburgh not having begun till after Pontiac's rebellion of 1763. As a halting-place and depot on the main highway from the East to the Mississippi valley, as chief centre of culture west of the Alleghenies for decades, as publisher of the first Western newspaper, and as a seat of iron and glass manufactories before the close of the eighteenth century, the little town of 1,500 people, as it was in 1800; of 5,000, as it was in 1815, was a bustling and interesting place. In their due relation and with their due background are here chronicled such facts as that in 1794 a bi-weekly line of arrow-proof packets between Cincinnati and Pittsburgh was established, and a fine prescribed for horsemen who "shot up the town" to express their disgust with its attitude in the Whiskey Rebellion; that in 1800 the streets were "filled with hogs, dogs, drays, and noisy children"; and at night "involved in primeval darkness"; that the early inhabitants were very pleasure-loving, and routs, cotillions, and assemblies abounded; that for years the only churches were German and Presbyterian; that a group of politicians known as the "Clap-board Row Junto" early gathered the political power into their hands; and that in 1807 Zadok Cramer, publisher of almanacs and guides for immigrants, brought out the first accounts of the Lewis and Clark expedition, and a large, two-volume, fully illustrated "Dictionary of the Holy Bible." The book is, of course, not so detailed upon political or administrative matters as histories of Pittsburgh already existing, and it is strangely deficient in its account of the social effects of the first industries; but for the student of religion, education, amusements, manners, trades, dress, and so on in this part of the early West, it will be very valuable.

The naturalist and the sportsman will find in C. E. Gouldsbury's "Tiger Slayer by Order" (London: Chapman, Hall) a wealth of experience and observation on the various wild animals, birds, and reptiles of India, especially of the Bombay Presidency, and a chapter on big game in Somaliland, East Africa. This store of information was acquired by Mr. Bigby Davies, the real author, or rather hero, of this interesting book, in the course of over thirty years' service as a policeman, during which time he was appointed by the Bombay Government as its official tiger slayer. In India, where the Arms act is in the case of the natives so strictly administered, there has always been a need either for an official gun or for private European enterprise in keeping certain wild animals in check. In and out of this office Mr. Davies killed upwards of 300 tigers, his biggest bag in his district for a year was thirty-one, and for a week six, tigers. He remembers at one time to have been tired of killing tigers. It should be kept in mind that this plenitude of savage wild animals no longer

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exists in India, but was true of the country about thirty years ago. Mr. Davies always shot on foot; when convenient, from a tree, and during his career was only once mauled by a tiger. We should remember, however, that he always used, even on his African trip, his Bhil policemen as *shikarris*, than which semi-aboriginal tribe no more sportsmanlike or jungle-wise is to be found in all India; and his remarks on their characteristics have an ethnological interest. Apropos of the Bhils, there is a branch tribe whose chief god resembles a tiger, and since they hold the tiger sacred they will not assist in its destruction—a superstition which is touched on in Kipling's story, "The Tomb of His Ancestors." Mr. Davies gives good advice concerning arms, ammunition, and the curing of skins. His knowledge of the habits and haunts of tigers, as well as of the numerous other wild animals and game, his keen interest in the life and customs of the Bhils and other tribes he met, make this book worth reading by both laymen and sportsmen. Mr. Gouldsbury has done well by the rich material Mr. Davies provided, but he should have taken pains with the spelling of proper names now standardized, and available in any gazetteer or publication of the Indian Government: thus Guzerat and Goozerat appear impartially. Through an archæological slip, excusable with a sportsman, he refers to the *Trimurti* image of Brahmā, Vishnu, and Siva in the Elephanta caves as "the three-faced god-Buddha."

The sub-title of "Crises in the History of the Papacy," the latest work of Joseph McCabe (Putnam; $2.50 net), is "A Study of Twenty Famous Popes, Whose Careers and Whose Influence Were Important in the Development of the Church and in the History of the World." This is more accurately descriptive of the contents, and would be still more so if for the words "a study" we could substitute "studies." The several brief chapters are each quite independent of the rest. The thread of unity is supplied by the chronological arrangement and by the general uniformity of method. The author's lack of personal sympathy with the great institution he is trying to deal with is obvious, and must be taken for granted in any judgment of his work. On the other hand, we are prepared to give him credit for an honest purpose to tell the truth as he sees it. He is not, nor does he pretend to be, in the most severe sense of the words, an original investigator. It is no disparagement of his method to say that it is essentially "journalistic." He is seeking always for the most telling incidents and traits of character to make his story as impressive as possible for the general reader. Naturally this leads him to deal very largely with personalities and to ascribe to personal qualities and individual acts an importance which belongs rather to social conditions or to the working of national or international politics. He seems to enjoy his work most when he can dilate upon the vices of a Borgia or upon the tyranny of a Hildebrand. The more subtle forces of the papal policy, the vast constructive and restraining influences of its greatest exponents, the services it could at times render to a society otherwise without unifying or spiritualizing agencies, all these aspects of papal history are passed over or inadequately valued. For the spirit and temper of the book we have only praise. It is noticeably free from vituperation; it refers liberally to the sources of its statements, and these are very largely the writings of defenders of the institution here under criticism. The work shows wide reading and careful selection. It should have a function in giving to intelligent but not professionally informed readers one side of the perpetually renewed discussion as to the nature and mission of the Roman system.

In "Mysticism and Modern Life" (Abingdon Press; $1 net), Prof. John Wright Buckham has given us a book that is both sane and sympathetic in a field of study where sympathy and sanity seldom lie down together. As the title implies, the aim of the book is not historical, psychological, or philosophical; it seeks, rather, merely to interpret mysticism to the busy man, and to indicate its place in modern life. The four classical mystic stages, Awakening, Purgation, Illumination, and Union, are described, but are reinterpreted in terms of the experience and the conditions of to-day. In Professor Buckham's opinion mysticism is the very heart of religion, and the modern world dearly needs to cultivate it with increasing earnestness. But his high appreciation of the value of mysticism does not blind him to many of its natural shortcomings as actually practiced by most mystics. The hard-headed critic will find in Chapter IV most of the "defects and limitations of mysticism" very frankly and fairly stated. Of course in the author's opinion these defects are not essential, and they may, with care, be avoided. They do not, in fact, exist in "normal mysticism." What "normal mysticism" is we are told very clearly in Chapter VII; and, quite inevitably, it turns out to be the kind of mysticism that happens to appeal most strongly to Professor Buckham, as a liberal Christian theologian. If it may fairly be questioned with what right the author sets up just his own favorite kind of mysticism as "normal," it must at any rate be admitted that he has described for us a very admirable type. But the chief criticism to which the book is open is the wavering and uncertain use of the word mysticism itself. In the Introduction mysticism is defined as "the certainty that grows up in the presence of mystery. It is religion resting upon inner experience." This, truly, is vague and inconclusive enough; but when we reach the final chapter, on Mysticism and Modern Society, the boundaries of mysticism are enlarged so as to include idealism, altruism, the social sense, and, in short, almost everything worthy of admiration; so that it is not difficult for the author to maintain that "one cannot be really *good* without being, in some sort and degree, mystical." Fortunately, this all-inclusive use of the term is confined to two or three chapters; and if in these the reader is on his guard, he will carry away from Professor Buckham's book as clear a notion of what mysticism is as he is likely to get from any book of its size on this rather involved subject.

Recent publications of the Babylonian section of the University of Pennsylvania Museum include "Sumerian Business and Administrative Documents from the Earliest Times to the Dynasty of Agade," by Prof. George A. Barton; "Babylonian Letters of the Hammurapi Period," by Prof. Arthur Ungnad, and "Legal and Administrative Documents from Nippur, Chiefly from the Dynasties of Isin and Larsa," by Dr. Edward Chiera. All three volumes represent important material for the study of the older periods of Babylonian culture. Dr. Chiera's volume of texts, consisting of over 100 tablets, is much the largest publication of documents dealing with these two dynasties that has as yet appeared, and is of particular interest because of the close relation of these dynasties to the Semitic rulers of Babylon who eventually obtained control of the old Sumerian centres throughout the Euphrates Valley. In the introduction, Dr. Chiera discusses important chronological problems for this older period, which, thanks to his texts and researches, have now been brought much closer to the solution. It is particularly gratifying to find a young scholar making his début in the scholarly world with so valuable a contribution which augurs well for a useful and distinguished career. The copies from the original—in many cases mere fragments—are executed with considerable skill, although scholars will continue to differ as to whether Dr. Chiera's method of reproducing in detail every peculiarity of the various scribes does not enhance the difficulties for those who make a study of cuneiform texts from copies.

Professors Barton and Ungnad occupy a more commendable *via media* in reproducing the general ductus of the tablets studied by them, by adopting a certain number of conventionalized forms in place of the reproduction of all the peculiarities, which in some cases may be due to the accidental vagaries of the scribe. Professor Barton's texts belong to a much earlier period than those in the other two volumes; they are written entirely in Sumerian, and are exceedingly difficult to interpret. Professor Barton has selected a few for translation which will be of some help to students approaching this class of texts, but it is to be hoped that the learned editor will publish elsewhere the results of his study of a large number of these texts, through which alone definite results can be reached. Professor Ungnad's volume is perhaps most interesting from the cultural point of view, as letters from any period are apt to be. The letters included in this volume are of both a special and a private character, and cover a large number of themes. Naturally, these publications of texts make their appeal to the small body of students engaged in cuneiform researches. All the greater, however, is the debt which scholars owe to the University of Pennsylvania in making its valuable collection accessible to students. All three volumes are, as usual, accompanied by most useful lists of proper names occurring in the tablets, including names of gods, temples, and places mentioned in the inscriptions.

"Pedigrees in the Ownership of Law Books," an address delivered before the Philobiblon Club by Hampton L. Carson (Philadelphia: The Philobiblon Club, 1916), is a paper that will appeal to that growing class, collectors and lovers of "association books," books, namely, that have a special interest from former owners of note. Mr. Carson draws his examples and gives photographs of title-pages bearing autograph signatures of famous owners, from his own large library of law books, covering the history of English law literature from its beginning to our own day. He refers to an earlier address before the same club, on legal classics, when he exhibited the earliest printed editions of Glanville,

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Bracton, Fleta, Littleton, Coke, Hale, and Blackstone. His later paper deals with the MS. Year Book of Solomon de Roff, a Judge in 1286, and with two MS. Year Books, one of the Elizabethan period, the other a hundred years earlier. The printed books exhibited and described include Fitzherbert's Abridgment, printed about 1516—the frontispiece reproduced represents Edward I, on his throne, probably printed by Wynkyn de Worde—and a second edition printed in 1765 by Tottel, bearing on the title-page the autographs of Tench Francis, Attorney-General of Pennsylvania in 1765; of John Dickinson, one of the framers and signers of the Constitution of the United States, both of whom had been students at the Temple; and of Charles Chauncey, one of the leaders of the Philadelphia bar in its most famous period. Another book, the second edition of Plowden's Commentaries, 1613, bears on its title-page, reproduced in all its attractive decorations, the signatures of Narcissus Luttrell, 1676, of Thomas Smith, of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, written in 1786, and of Walter H. Lowrie, Chief Justice of that court, dated 1860, and of Joseph P. Gross, dated November 1, 1878. The last was Mr. Carson's first law student, a collector of books and a promising young member of the Philadelphia bar, cut off too soon to fulfil the promise he gave of success in his profession. Mr. Carson refers to Plowden as a source from which Shakespeare drew the Crowner's Quest Law that figures in the famous Grave Diggers scene in the fifth act of "Hamlet." Another of the books was Rolle's Abridgment of 1668, with a preface by Sir Matthew Hale, and his autograph of the same date, on the title-page, and that of his grandson of the same name, dated 1694, as well as that of Tench Francis, and that (together with a handsome book-plate) of Henry J. Williams, dated 1838, when he was one of the leaders of the bar of Philadelphia. He was the preceptor of many leading members of the Philadelphia bar, notably of the leader of the bar to-day, John G. Johnson. Small as is this paper, it is of interest to all lovers of books and a credit to the Philobiblon Club.

Mr. Arthur Gleason, a graduate of Yale, who was at the Belgian front for five months with an ambulance corps, has written a vivid narrative of his experiences, which he has entitled "Golden Lads," in honor of the French Fusiliers Marins, with whom he was connected (Century Co.; $1.30 net). As an American who witnessed German atrocities and whose testimony has been incorporated into the Bryce report, Mr. Gleason naturally commands attention. His detestation of Germany's methods of war is so great that he fears American indignation over Belgium's fate may cool down. To keep us from thinking that the injury to Belgium is a thing of the past, Mr. Gleason shows in his chapter on "The Steam-Roller" how the German Administration is even now endeavoring to flatten out the Belgian people and denationalize them permanently. Perhaps the most interesting chapter in this rather disjointed book is by Mrs. Gleason on "How War Seems to a Woman." Her summing up of the matter is worth quoting: "What war does is to reveal human nature. It does not alter it. It heightens the brutality and the heroism. Selfishness shines out nakedly and kindliness is seen clearer than in routine peace days. War brings out what is inside the person." The book is plentifully illustrated; the profits of its sales are to be devoted to one of the funds for the French wounded. A brief preface by Col. Roosevelt asserts that "the entire book is a protest against the craven attitude of our Government." But that is the Colonel's deduction and not Mr. Gleason's statement.

Luigi Cornaro's "Discorsi della vita sobria" have ever been popular in England and in this country. They were first translated by George Herbert, highly praised by Addison, and "perused with singular satisfaction" by George Washington (according to a letter of his, written in 1799 to the Rev. Mr. Weems, the first American editor of the little treatise). The reprint now issued by Crowell, under the title "Discourses on the Sober Life," has more than a hundred English and American predecessors. The "Discorsi" tell how Cornaro, after an exhausting patrician youth, restricted himself, at the age of forty, to twelve ounces of food and fourteen of wine a day, and how, on that diet, but slightly varied, he reached a serene and vigorous old age. The book is full of eminent good-sense. Cornaro prescribes that diet be consistent and moderate, but leaves amount and quality to be determined by the experimental study of individual needs, and he urges the avoidance of extreme heat and cold, over-exertion, bad air, melancholy, and hatred. The description of his own later years—illustrated in the Pitti by Tintoretto's portrait—is very winning, not so much because at eighty-three he wrote a comedy "abounding with innocent mirth and pleasant jests" (he had been, by the way, the chief patron of Ruzzante), or because ten years later his voice had grown "so strong and sonorous that I cannot help chanting aloud my prayers," as because of his patriarchal delight in family and in estates, and his sincere piety towards human and divine. "I really never knew," he says, "till I grew old, that the world was so beautiful."

Prof. Elmer Edgar Stoll has added now to his previous studies of Shakespearean characters "Othello: An Historical and Comparative Study" (Bulletin of the University of Minnesota; Minneapolis). The tenor of the present study is, of course, the same as in the case of the earlier studies: Shakespeare's dramatic art, like that of the other Elizabethans, is essentially unpsychological; he was not concerned with maintaining the consistency of his characters, or, indeed, with fidelity to nature in other respects; hence his motivation is of the weakest; in fine, his only aim in such a tragedy as "Othello" is to gain striking dramatic effects in the individual scenes, without regard to the integrity of his characters or the truth of nature, and he does this mainly by the more skilful use of conventions which were the common property of the dramatists of the age. The most valuable feature of Professor Stoll's studies is the citation of parallels to Shakespeare's dramatic methods from the drama of the Renaissance, and, occasionally, of later periods. In this respect, the present essay is less full than the one on Falstaff, which appeared in *Modern Philology* (October, 1914). Whatever one's judgment concerning these methods may be, it is an essential factor of the problem of Shakespeare's art to determine what is individual in his work and what are, so to speak, merely the stage devices of the period. According to Professor Stoll there is no harmony between the noble Moor of the first act, the honored general of the Venetian state, and the incredibly stupid victim of a senseless jealousy whom we see in the further development of the play. Like other playwrights of the period, Shakepeare was merely seeking a violent contrast for dramatic effect, without paying any heed to the glaring inconsistency that resulted therefrom. Similarly, the writer contends, the means by which Iago works the Moor up to a frenzy of jealousy are ridiculously inadequate. As a matter of fact, Othello is made thus credulous simply to give the stage-villain a chance. And the dénouement of the plot has as little verisimilitude as its beginning. "In the last analysis, the slanderer was believed that there might be a story, and the slanderer is now repudiated that the story may end." In short, the author finds nothing in the play to commend either in the delineation of the characters or in the construction of the plot, if tested by the truth of nature.

This merciless verdict upon a work which Lord Macaulay has pronounced "perhaps the greatest of human compositions" raises questions too numerous and too large to be discussed in this place. We may remark, however, that Professor Stoll, as it strikes us, does not take sufficiently into account some important factors in the problem. So long as only two or three hours can be given to the acting of a play, the dramatist is bound to employ a certain amount of convention in the development of his plot, unless, indeed, he chooses to renounce development altogether and depict his characters, as it were, in position. Our contemporary dramatists who figure, by implication, in all of the author's studies as the norm of excellence, do make this choice in a considerable degree, and limit the action of their plays in respect to both time and place; but, as compared with actual life, the convention is still there. But why should one condemn the practice of the dramatists of earlier ages, if they made a larger use of such conventions and endeavored to set before us the protagonists of their tragedies at different stages of their development? Surely, the method is justified by its results. Few people, because they admire Ibsen, would wish to throw Shakespeare and the rest overboard. As regards "Othello" itself, we are quite willing to grant that the part played by the handkerchief in the ruin of Desdemona is in some degree conventional, but, in so far as it is conventional, is it not a perfectly legitimate device to bring on the emotional conflict which, *pace* Professor Stoll, Shakespeare has set before us with such splendid power? Again, we deny any real inconsistency between the Othello of the first act and of the scenes in which he becomes the victim of Iago. Any apparent inconsistency is due merely to the method of presenting in the same play the character before its moral decline as well as after. There is an indisputable advantage in dramatic contrast from this method, and if the conditions of time make it impossible, in the drama, to trace out with minuteness the process of change, as could be done in a novel, we cannot regard this as a valid objection to Elizabethan art. The sum and substance of the matter is that the dramatist selects for treatment a crisis of passion in his hero's life, but instead of merely indicating by indirect means the earlier phase of the hero's character, he makes this earlier phase a part

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of the action of his play. Altogether, it seems to us that Professor Stoll adopts too narrow a conception of art when he applies to the drama of all other periods the yardstick of our contemporary realism. Apart from the matters which we have just touched on, the limitations of his principles of criticism appear in his attitude towards everything that involves idealization in the drama, and yet idealization is of the very essence of poetry. Whether one agrees with him or not, one must acknowledge, however, that he is the ablest of the critics who approach Shakespeare from this point of view.

With an extremely handsome issue for July 1 of 108 pages, the *Bellman*, of Minneapolis, celebrates its tenth anniversary, republishing a selection of articles, poems, and illustrations which have from time to time appeared in its columns. The occasion justifies the mild self-congratulation in which the editor and founder indulges in a long article telling "The Story of the *Bellman*." This weekly review, published in a thriving city of the Middle West, has deservedly won recognition far beyond the borders of its own birthplace. It is notable particularly for the vigorous policy and trenchant style of its editorials, and hardly less so for the sound literary standard of its contributed articles, poems, and short stories. Typographically it is unsurpassed by any paper of its kind in the United States. It is a pleasure to note that for ten years so admirable a periodical has survived the competition of inferior and cheaper rivals and to extend to the *Bellman* our felicitations and good wishes for its continued prosperity.

Science

A TEXTBOOK ON METAMORPHISM.

Metamorphic Geology. By C. K. Leith and W. J. Mead. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.

The subject matter of this valuable book is really "The Alteration of Rocks and Rock-Minerals," and there is no apparent reason why this simpler title should not have been chosen. In the introduction we read:

> Rock metamorphism is here defined to cover all mineralogic, chemical, and physical changes in rocks subsequent to their primary crystallization from magma. . . . We shall follow Van Hise by including under metamorphism not only development of schistose and crystalline rocks, but also all changes involved in rock weathering and cementation.

Van Hise regards plants and animals as agents of metamorphism and wrote in his Treatise on Metamorphism (p. 456): "In chemical work [as a phase of metamorphism] probably the most important of the animals while alive are the earthworms." He lists ants, the burrowing gopher, and the farmer as other agents of metamorphism, since all of them stir the soil and thus favor its chemical solution in rain-water. In thus regarding as "metamorphic" all the changes in rocks and minerals due to their mere weathering or to their solution or precipitation from solutions, these authors part company with nearly all other working geologists. The broadened definition may be logical, but it seems unwise. Strict logic is seldom applicable to the classification of the objects or processes studied in any branch of natural science. Everywhere we see transition of types. Nevertheless, it is necessary to develop terms which shall signify, as closely as possible, groups of phenomena which respectively involve distinct sets of physical conditions. According to general usage, "metamorphism" includes those changes in rocks which lead to the generation of chemically new rock-types or to the generation of new minerals in the original material, complete solution in lava (magma) and also destructive alterations due to weathering being excluded. As ordinarily used, the word implies partial or complete re-crystallization at comparatively high pressures and temperatures. Of course, the etymology of the word formally forbids such restriction of the meaning, and the Wisconsin geologists are technically within their rights when they object to the narrowing. The difficulty is that no one has yet suggested a good equivalent for the term as generally used; until some geologist has that inspiration, it seems best to retain the orthodox definition and usage.

Even when so restricted, the name covers a colossal field of research, already so difficult, wide-reaching, and important, as well as so energetically cultivated, that a mere summary of its problems and principles is next to impossible in a work of the size now under consideration. Out of some 300 pages devoted to general discussion, more than 100 pages are assigned to weathering processes. As a result, neither weathering nor true metamorphism is adequately treated. The authors state that the text is "made purposely brief, as a guide to the study of principles as inferred from field and laboratory studies." It is truly disappointing that all the space was not given to metamorphism proper, a subject in which Professors Leith and Mead are acknowledged authorities.

Though this is not intended by the writers to be a "handbook of metamorphism in which one may expect to find an adequate description of metamorphic details," yet "a guide to the study of principles" in a fluid science like geology should give the student a vivid sense of the composite authorship of most formulated principles. Conflicts of opinion on metamorphic problems are so numerous that constant reference to original memoirs is necessary, in textbook and handbook alike. The writers "have drawn freely on available literature on metamorphism. In most cases credit is given in the text, but no attempt has been made to make the bibliography complete, for the book is not written for the investigator following up the subject in detail." In spite of this disclaimer, the reader of the book may receive the impression that most of the thinking on metamorphism has been done in America. References are given to only thirteen European papers or books, including four of English origin. Many foreign masters of at least parts of the subject, like Judd, Peach, Horne, Teall, Michel Lévy, Lacroix, Barrois, Termier, Sederholm, Törnebohm, Högbom, Reusch, Lossen, Rosenbusch, Naumann, Lepsius, and Milch are not mentioned; nor are some of their fundamental ideas duly weighed, be it ever so briefly. Contact metamorphism, that is, the alteration of rock matter by underground lava or "magma," is sketched but not treated on a scale appropriate to a 300-page work. Static (load) metamorphism is almost entirely ignored, though some recent writers are inclined to regard this kind as perhaps the most important of all in the generation of the crystalline schists. These and other serious omissions are partly due to the inevitable crowding-out of matter properly referring to metamorphic geology by the discussion of weather changes in rocks and of allied topics.

The book is well printed and tastefully bound. The arrangement of the material, the use of captions, the table of contents, and the indexing are all admirably handled. One may doubt the value of the sixteen costly plates. They are graphic representations of chemical analyses and are not accompanied by the corresponding arithmetical tables, which should in any case appear. On account of their complexity, some of the graphs are much harder to understand than their respective tables of analyses.

Regarded as a summary statement of definite problems in rock alteration, treated quantitatively, the work is unique and indispensable to working geologists. The style is simple and generally very clear, in spite of the inherent difficulty of the subject. Indeed, the chief adverse criticism is that the book is too short. The present review can be put in a nutshell—geologists want from these authors more of the same kind of thinking and writing that is represented in the last two hundred pages of the book. The profession would surely rejoice if the Wisconsin investigators, with their profound experience and unrivalled equipment, should publish a more complete handbook on metamorphism proper, treated with the ability shown in the work now under review.

"A Brief Physical Geography," by John W. Davis and Thomas H. Hughes (Hinds, Noble & Eldredge; 65 cents), is a small elementary volume, containing upwards of two hundred pages of text with numerous maps, diagrams, and illustrations. The authors take the ground that it is practically impossible nowadays to justify a purely physical geography, inasmuch as the pressing demand in geography is for an explanation of how man lives and why he lives in this way or that. Accordingly, in this volume, an attempt is made to impress, wherever possible, the bearings of natural or physical phenomena upon man in his various activities; and to show how the natural environment of man helps or hinders

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him in his upward progress from savagery to civilization. Certain features of the earth and the solar system which have little or no direct human significance receive, nevertheless, some attention on the ground that there are many simple astronomical facts which it is "a disgrace and a misfortune not to know." At the close of the chapters are lists of questions and exercises designed to stimulate interest and to train the pupils in habits of clear thinking.

Music

ROMANTIC AND MODERN COMPOSERS.

The Appreciation of Music. By Daniel Gregory Mason. Vol. II. New York: H. W. Gray Co. $1.50.

Music After the Great War. By Carl Van Vechten. New York: G. Schirmer. $1 net.

Probably in no other country is there so widely prevalent an eagerness to learn how to appreciate and enjoy good music as in the United States. Certainly in no other have so many books been published on how to listen to music. Among the best and most serviceable are Mr. Mason's two volumes. The second begins with a few pages on romanticism and realism, which are followed by chapters on fourteen great composers: Schubert, Schumann, Mendelssohn, Berlioz, Liszt, Chopin, Grieg, Dvorák, Saint-Saëns, Franck, Tchaikovsky, Brahms, Strauss, Debussy. Besides giving a brief biographic sketch of each of these masters, the author records his opinion as to his achievements and concludes with an analysis of one or more of his best works, calling attention to the less obvious beauties in them. Usually these opinions are sane and free from bias. Time was when Mr. Mason, who is now assistant professor of music at Columbia University, manifested in his writings a surprising Teutonic conservatism and narrowness which contrasted painfully with the liberal views and the open-mindedness of his uncle, the late Dr. William Mason. From this academicism the present volume suffers little. One still finds in it such Teutonisms as the statement that the sonatas of the Polish Chopin, "beautiful as the music in them is, are not, properly speaking, sonatas at all. Neither are Grieg's"; or the assertion that the Hungarian Liszt "played to the gallery"—he, of whom Wagner said that he was the first who, by his playing, revealed to him the essence of Bach and Beethoven! Schumann, to be sure, while transported into ecstasies by Liszt's playing, found "a good deal of tinsel about it, too"; but that was in the early days, before Liszt had quite got rid of his ambition to be the Paganini of the piano.

The chapter on Grieg is a great improvement over that on the same composer in an earlier volume by Professor Mason; but he still places a great deal too much emphasis on this master's nationalism. Some of the younger musicians in Norway who are now preaching that Grieg was no nationalist at all are really much nearer the truth than our author is when he says that Grieg, though "cultivated in the study of cosmopolitan music, deliberately restricted himself to the exploitation of the folk music of his native land." As a matter of fact, this "exploitation" does not comprise more than perhaps five per cent. of his output, and even those of his pieces which are based on Norse folk music are far more Griegian than Norwegian. As his friend and pupil, Percy Grainger, wrote in Presser's *Etude* for June: "Grieg was nowhere else more amazingly his own weird, partly selfish, partly heroic self than in his settings for piano of 'Norwegian Folksongs,' Op. 66, and of 'Peasant Dances' (Slaater), op. 72." Professor Mason also fails to see that Grieg's habit (which he shares with Schubert) of presenting his music in brief sections, which are immediately repeated in new keys, far from affording evidence of "a certain weakness of mental grasp," constitutes one of his greatest charms; for these unforeseen changes of key are often flashes of genius which move a sensitive listener to tears. A single one of these modulations is worth more than a hundred pages of the "logical" or "thematic" development with which, in the words of Schumann, German composers are wont to spoil their best musical ideas.

In his own compositions Professor Mason is too prone to follow this German method. He would build on firmer ground if he took Grieg as a model instead of Brahms. Some encouragement may be found in the admission, in his chapter on Brahms, that the finale of his first 'cello sonata is "a standing evidence of what discomfort he will inflict on the ear when misled by an academic ambition." Further evidence that Professor Mason is beginning to see light may be found in his defence of Richard Strauss against the charge of "formlessness": "To deal with free types of structure as he has done requires more mental power, a deeper analytic penetration of the essential psychology of tonal, harmonic, rhythmic, and thematic relationships than to pour all one's ideas into the convenient, but sometimes inappropriate, mould of the sonata-form."

If all the chapters in Mr. Van Vechten's book were as foolish as the first one, Music After the Great War, after which it is named, it would not be worth reviewing. He not only finds that "the music-dramas of Richard Wagner are aging rapidly," but that Germany, since these were written, has done little that is worth while or seems likely to do anything in the immediate future. France, Italy, and England are in a similar predicament, and Russia alone holds out some promise in Stravinsky. To this composer thirty pages are devoted, and these constitute the most comprehensive and illuminating chapter to be found so far in a book printed in the English language. The author happened to be in Paris when some of Stravinsky's "anarchistic" works were produced, and he gives interesting accounts of "The Sacrifice to the Spring," "The Nightingale," "The Firebird," "Petrouchka." In the first-named of these we see how rapidly musicians are travelling away from the effete past; in it "primitive emotions are both depicted and aroused by a dependence on barbarous rhythm, in which melody and harmony, as even so late a composer as Richard Strauss understands them, do not enter." A brief sketch of the life of Stravinsky (who is undoubtedly by far the most gifted of the "futurists") is included, as well as a bibliographic note. In it are mentioned orchestral versions by this composer (who is a master-colorist) of works by Grieg and Chopin, which would doubtless interest the public. Among the other topics discussed in this volume are "The Secret of the Russian Ballet," "Massenet and Women," and "Stage Decoration as a Fine Art."

HENRY T. FINCK.

Art

A LOST MONUMENTAL ART.

Rajput Painting. Being an Account of the Hindu Paintings of Rajustan and the Panjab Himalayas from the Sixteenth to the Nineteenth Century. By Ananda Coomaraswamy. Two folio volumes, one of text, one of plates. New York: Oxford University Press. $34.

These two stately volumes into which Mr. Coomaraswamy has gathered the scattered sheets of three centuries tell with a pathetic eloquence of a lost monumental art. They have the same relation to the great paintings at Ajanta that the border ballads of Scotland hold to the mediæval romances. It is an essentially Hindu art, generally religious, singularly naïve and fervid. Through these researches we are for the first time in a position to assess the value of real Indian painting.

Unhappily, the painting of India has generally been judged by the miniatures produced in the Mogul courts. This Mogul painting was highly exotic and eclectic. Its point of departure was Persia, but it developed a refined realism of its own. It excelled in portraiture. Otherwise its themes were romantic and courtly. The technical perfection of this Mogul work will at first sight give to the Rajput paintings a rustic and unaccomplished air. On closer study this impression is replaced by a growing admiration for their directness and sincerity.

The sheets are not miniatures, but run in about the sizes of Japanese prints. The aspect is spare and monumental. Rarely does one find the preciosity so usual in Mogul art and in its Persian prototypes. Constantly one is reminded of the lovelier phase of the early Renaissance in Italy. To put it technically, and not to underrate these charming works, we have to do with a genuine primitivism, but in debilitated estate.

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The real affinities of these nameless Rajput painters are the *rétardataires* of Umbria and Tuscany. Mr. Coomaraswamy aptly suggests the analogy of Blake, but he is much more masterly.

Krishna is naturally the hero of the collection. One sees him Orpheus-like piping to the animals, gravely welcoming the enamoured Rani, who comes to him through the storm, dallying with his maidens. It is interesting to compare with these racy designs plate xx, a Harem scene, executed with the rather insipid elegance of the Mogul school. To see the authentic painting of India at its best one should consult the lovely design Cowdust, plate I, or the supremely beautiful expression of the nude, Rāhdā's Toilet, plate lxxiia, or the powerfully sinister composition, plate lxix, which represents Kālī as the Power of Death. In all there are seventy-eight fine collotype plates, some in color, largely chosen from the author's own albums.

There are rare fragments of cartoons which attest the monumental intention of the paintings and show the persistence of the tradition of Ajanta.

Mr. Coomaraswamy has given the literary originals and analogues for each picture, both in the original text and in translation. This is enough to provide the necessary background of legend, mythology, and mysticism, but the appreciation of this learned and laborious commentary, which is delightful for a layman to read, must naturally be left to a professional Indianist.

Artistically it seems to us the most important find since the Bushman cave paintings, and the Indian paintings are of wider appeal and significance.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

MISCELLANEOUS.

Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution. 1915. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Burgess, E. W. The Function of Socialization in Social Evolution. University of Chicago Press. $1.25 net.
Corwin, E. S. French Policy and the American Alliance. Princeton University Press. $2 net.
Dana, J. C. Librairies, Addresses and Essays. H. W. Wilson Co.
Mills, W. T. Democracy or Despotism. Berkeley, Cal.: International School of Social Economy.
Newell, E. T. The Dated Alexander Coinage of Sidon and Ake. New Haven: Yale University Press. $2.50 net.
Rhodes, H. E. L. and C. L. Napoleon in His Own Words. Chicago: McClurg. $1 net.
Robinson, J. H. Medieval and Modern Times. Boston: Ginn. $1.60 net.
Sneath, E. H., Hodges, G., and Tweedy, H. J. The Way of the Rivers. The Way of the Hills. Macmillan. 55 cents net each.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Goodnow, F. J. Principles of Constitutional Government. Harper. $2 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Marchant, J. Alfred Russel Wallace. Harper. $5 net.
Judson, K. B. Early Days in Old Oregon. Chicago: McClurg. $1 net.
Steiner, B. C. Life of Henry Winter Davis. Baltimore, Md.: John Murphy Co. $1.50 net.

POETRY.

Roberts, W. R. Patriotic Poetry. London: John Murray. 3s. 6d. net.

Levi's French Composition

By MORITZ LEVI, Professor in the University of Michigan. 115 pp. 12mo. 75 cents.

This manual aims at making the student acquainted with French life, customs, and manners. Questions in French are appended in order to enable the learner thoroly to assimilate the French text. The English passages are based on the French text, this part of the work being provided with copious foot-notes.

The following are a few of the topics treated: A Trip to Europe; Arrival in Paris; At the Hotel; Looking for an Apartment; At the Post-office; Taking French Lessons; At a Bookstore; At a Restaurant; Parisian Houses; Parisian Museums; Parisian Cafés; At the Theatre; Kiosks; French Newspapers; The Underground Railway; Sunday in Paris.

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By MAXWELL FERGUSON, A.M., LL.B., Sometime University Fellow in Political Science, Columbia University; Instructor in Economics, Vassar College. 8vo. Pp. 228. *Paper covers*, $1.75.*

Vol. 72, No. 1. AMERICAN MEN OF LETTERS: Their Nature and Nurture.

By EDWIN LEAVITT CLARKE, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of Economics and Sociology, Hamilton College, Sometime University Fellow, Columbia University. 8vo. Pp. 169. *Paper Covers.* $1.50.*

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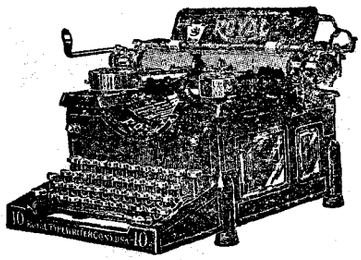

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